The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1888.

The Week.

A DUPLICATE of Senator Chace's International Copyright Bill has been introduced into the House by Col. W. C. P. Breckinridge, and referred to the Judiciary Committee, and a hearing before that Committee was in certain respects very much more satisfactory than that accorded by the Senate Committee. All but one of the members of the Judiciary Committee were present; all gave what appeared to be intelligent attention to the statements submitted; and all, or nearly all, expressed, at the end of the hearing, their cordial approval of the measure. There seems to be no question but that it will be favorably reported to the House, and probably by a unanimous vote. Speaker Carlisle has expressed his interest in doing whatever may be practicable from the Speaker's chair to secure favorable attention for the measure when it comes up, and it is the expectation of Col. Breckinridge and others that it will probably prove possible to secure the hour's consideration necessary some time within the next few weeks. The measure has now so many friends among the leaders of both sides of the House (with the Democrats, for instance, Breckinridge, Cox, Patrick Collins, etc., and with the Republicans, Kelley, Reed, Hitt, and others), that the motion to give consideration to it is likely to be favorably received at any time when the House may not be absorbed in the appropriations or tariff business. Mr. Randall has already expressed general approval of the measure, and is expected to allow whatever time is needed for it, to be borrowed, if necessary, from "appropriations."

An obvious comment on Senator Plumb's amendment to the Bond-Purchase Bill is that there is no way to put his new-fangled non-legal-tender notes in circulation, and that "issuing" them means, therefore, putting them to bed and tucking them up in the Treasury. We observe that this point was made against the amendment by Senator Hiscock, and that Mr. Plumb answered by asking Mr. Hiscock what he should think of the plan of applying them to the payment of the national debt. Mr. Hiscock did not have the right answer at his tongue's end, viz., that the plan of paying the bonds in greenbacks was fought out just twenty years ago, in the campaign of 1868, although the issue was different then, since we had not resumed specie payments. At present the process would be as follows: The Government buys a bond of $1,000, paying say $1,250 gold. This causes the retirement of $900 of national-bank notes. The Government then "issues" $900 of non-legal-tender notes, and in order to get these notes in circulation buys $900 worth more of bonds, which would be a bond for $720, or at that rate. The holder of the notes, probably not liking the looks of them, as they are not legal tender, would go to the Sub-Treasury and draw the gold on them. If he did not, the bank in which he deposited them would. Then the Government would have them back again, and would repeat the operation, buying another $720 bond, parting with $900 more of gold, and getting the notes back in due course, and continuing the process as long as any gold was left. Would it not be a saving in shoe leather to pay out the gold for the bonds directly?

Senator Edmunds hit Senator Sherman a hard rap in the debate on the Blair proposition. Mr. Sherman, after recanting the position taken in his Nashville speech of last year, that he would "not reproach any man for the part he took in that fight," fell back upon his old ground, and has since maintained it, that "rebels" ought to be "reproached," and that, as he said in his Springfield speech, "every nation to which these gentlemen [ministers, consuls, etc., who had served in the Confederate Army] are accredited, may fairly conclude that it was the rebel cause that triumphed, and not the Union cause." But now comes Senator Edmunds and talks in this strain: "Nobody objects to Confederate soldiers or Confederate citizens sitting in this chamber," or being accredited to foreign countries; "they stand just like every other citizen, no better and no worse"; "there is oblivion on that" (the rebellion), "and without regard to their previous history in that respect they are common and equal citizens, with equal rights with anybody else." If John Sherman or any other bloody-shirt orator after this complains because "rebels" are appointed to office, it would seem as though the Democrats could not do better than to engage George F. Edmunds to denounce as it deserves such unpatriotic talk.

The vigorous speech in favor of tariff reform delivered in the House on Thursday by Mr. Nelson, Republican Congressman from Minnesota, is a noteworthy sign of the times. It shows that the Republican party cannot be held to the absurd policy of mere opposition to all tariff legislation, which Eastern protectionists of the Kelley school advocate. Mr. Nelson knows what he is talking about when he declares that the people want reform, for he was reëlected by the almost unanimous vote of his district because of his advocacy of reform, while at the same time he saw a colleague in another Minnesota district, who had declared for a high tariff, lose by over 5,000 votes the district which he had carried two years before by nearly 4,500 votes.

The Providence *Journal* takes notice of a terrible threat made by Mr. Butterworth of Ohio, at a recent tariff meeting in that city, "that if Rhode Island dared to touch the wool on the sheep's back, the woolgrowers would turn around and make this State a howling wilderness." Of course, Mr. Butterworth did not mean that if the duty on wool were repealed, the wool-growers would invade Rhode Island with torches and tomahawks and burn the factories and put the inhabitants to the sword. He meant that they would repeal the duty on woollen goods, and he really believes that that would be the same thing as making the State a howling wilderness. Could there be a more naïve expression and true definition of the protectionist creed than this? Wool is only one of some thousands of articles in the tariff the whole of which, according to the tariff gospel, go to make up the aggregate and sum total of the national prosperity. Yet, if by any mischance wool should be put on the free list, these good patriots would turn the whole country into a howling wilderness if they could. The Providence *Journal* thinks, however, that Rhode Island exists by the grace of God and not by the forbearance of Western shepherds. It mentions the fact that "the Republican candidate for Governor was constrained to withdraw from manufacturing by the unsatisfactory condition of the business under the present tariff," and evidently believes that Rhode Island might as well perish by having too little tariff as by having too much.

It was stated in the *Evening Post* last week on good authority that the cost of the late strike on the Reading Railroad was about $1,500,000. It would be more correct to say that this was the cost of recovering the property from the Knights of Labor. No other outlay since the reorganization of the company has been half so judicious as this. Indeed, it may be said that all the other disbursements would have been valueless without this. If there had been included in the plan of reorganization an item like this:

For regaining control of the road.....$1,500,000

there would have been a great hubbub in the newspapers, and perhaps in the circles of high finance; but such an item would have been the very groundwork and indispensable condition of the whole scheme, as the event has since proved, for when the employees refused to move a carload of flour that came out of the "scab" warehouse, the Knights of Labor virtually laid claim to the Reading Railroad by "calling out" all the employees in order to support the hands who had boycotted the flour. This was a condition precedent to the reorganization. It was the underlying mortgage, the prior lien, of the whole series, and it had to be paid off. It is fortunate that it was no larger in amount than $1,500,000.

The spreading of the railroad strike at Chicago, Milwaukee, Kansas City, and Indianapolis is the natural consequence of the timorous behavior of the railway officials. Instead of planting themselves on the law, and declaring that they would obey and ful-

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fil the law though the heavens should fall, they said virtually that they would not obey it until compelled to by the sheriff. When the enginemen took the grotesque position that the moving of "Q." cars was a violation of neutrality (when, in fact, the non-moving of them was an express violation of a statute of the United States), the connecting roads gave a tacit assent to this doctrine. One of them, the Rock Island, gave its assent in writing. They thus gave the leaders of the strike encouragement to suppose that they could do anything. They supplied a firebrand to burn down their own houses. They are responsible for all the mischief that has followed the Burlington strike. The only way to end the trouble is to resolve now that they will obey the law and make everybody in their employ obey it. To this complexion they must come at last, and the sooner they come to it, the sooner will they see daylight through the present gloom.

If a man of whom the public knew nothing except that his name was Peck were to write a book and call it 'Peck on Labor,' he would find it pretty hard to get a publisher to take any risk in bringing it out. In fact, he would almost certainly have to pay the cost of manufacture and advertising himself. Well, we have a man named Peck, of whom the public really knows nothing except that he is Peck, and has been selected by Gov. Hill for the office of "Commissioner of Labor Statistics"; and he has produced a book of which the proper title would be 'Peck on Labor,' but he does not pay the cost of printing and publishing it himself. He abuses his office of Commissioner by issuing it in the form of a "report," and making the taxpayers foot the bills. His proper business as Commissioner is to collect statistics, but, forgetful of this, he stuffs his book full of Peck views on labor and capital, and the general condition and needs of human society in general. His figures, it is true, frequently refute his arguments, but this is a difficulty which makes little impression on the Peck mind. He would probably say that the arguments can stand it, if the figures can. It is very mean of Peck to put so much of himself into a public document. He ought to make his mark as a "thinker" and economist in a series of books entitled 'Peck's Works,' before asking us all to bring out his essays at our expense. Of his last book we will only say that it is not any sillier than the one he published last year. It speaks well for him that he still keeps what little sense he ever had.

Attention has been drawn lately to a bill before the Legislature, and favorably reported, to revolutionize the prison system of New York. Whether this bill is in the interest of Labor or of the lunatic asylums, we do not know. It may partake of the nature of both. On the side of Labor it provides that no prisoner shall be compelled to work more than eight hours a day. "The remainder of the time," it says, "shall be devoted to such repose, exercise, study, mental and moral improvement as may be designated and required by the superintendent, warden, keeper, or other officer or officers having the control and direction of such convicts, and with a view to their reformation; and if for any reason a convict be not employed during such time, he shall be compelled to take needful exercise, in the yard or corridors of his place of imprisonment, or in such other place as may be designated, for at least two hours a day." It provides, also, that no motive power or machinery of any description shall be placed or used in any prison, jail, or reformatory in the State for the purpose of increasing the revenue or products thereof. It proposes to introduce the Georgia system of outside-gang convict labor, by employing the prisoners in agriculture or in draining and reclaiming swamp lands. Permission is granted also to employ convicts in building or repairing their own prisons and in manufacturing articles needed in prisons. This latter provision has not received proper attention, for it must be evident that if prisoners are allowed to make their own clothes, they will deprive tailors of employment; and if they are allowed to build and repair prisons and jails, they will compete with stone-cutters, masons, plasterers, etc. And this provision is quite needless, too, for if they are to be taken out in chain-gangs and set to work cultivating land, or digging ditches, there is certainly land enough owned by the State to keep them all employed, especially if they do not work more than eight hours a day.

Other provisions of this interesting measure are that no person convicted of felony shall hereafter be confined in a county penitentiary (there are six county penitentiaries in the State in which felons are confined), but all shall be sent to the State prisons, and that every person convicted of a misdemeanor punishable by imprisonment shall be imprisoned only in a jail or penitentiary within the county where the offence was committed. The effect of this would be to empty the six county penitentiaries, and to require the State to build new prisons furnishing an equal amount of room, and to require the remaining forty-four counties to enlarge their jails to meet the full requirements of their own prisoners of every grade below that of felony. The just and appropriate comment of the Prison Association upon this clause of the bill is, that "when the county jails are universally denounced as hot-beds of crime and a disgrace to our civilization; when the demand for their utter extinction and the substitution in their place of something better is loudly made by all intelligent men who have given the slightest investigation to their evils, the proposal to actually enlarge their sphere and importance shows an audacious disregard of the best sentiment of the community." Of the measure as a whole, they say it will "destroy the penitentiaries, will impose great and sudden expense upon many counties and upon the State, and inflict permanent injury on the cause of prison reform in the State of New York."

The full text of the composite Ballot Reform Bill which has been drawn by the Judiciary Committee of the Assembly is a very different measure from what the Chairman's outline of it led us to expect. It does not provide for separate tickets for each political party, but groups under the party name the candidates of each party for each office, and prints all the names of the candidates of all parties for the same office upon one ballot. This is unobjectionable, as it can in no way lead to party espionage at the polls. Neither does the bill provide for each party to have a ballot clerk at the polls, but simply names two ballot clerks at each polling-place to be appointed as election inspectors are now. This is the simplest and best way. There is also a provision for individual nominations, but it needs amending in a slight particular, and then will be entirely feasible and satisfactory. As it stands, it seems to imply that petitions for nominations must be signed singly, rather than in duplicate, for only a single certificate of nomination is mentioned. This can easily be remedied by inserting after the words "certificate of nomination" the words "which may consist of one or more writings." This phraseology has been adopted by the framers of the proposed Massachusetts act, and is of great importance. The provisions for the official marking of ballots and for secrecy in voting are all excellent, and the bill as a whole is a most desirable measure. We sincerely hope that the Legislature, acting in the same public-spirited and non-partisan manner as the Judiciary Committee have done, will pass it without delay.

The State-rights issue reappears in a novel form in Iowa. A law of that State assesses taxes upon the property of the Pullman Palace Car Company in Iowa. The company for three years has fought against this law within the State by such devices as enjoining every county treasurer. This year they have appealed to the Federal courts, and secured an injunction from Judge Brewer of the United States Circuit Court at St. Louis, requiring the Governor of Iowa and his Council to appear before the court in St. Louis and show cause why they should not be perpetually enjoined from assessing the company's property for taxation. The Governor and Council have decided to ignore the order of the Federal court and levy the tax, and the question now is what the Judge will do about it. Meanwhile, the Republicans of Iowa are beginning to develop a great admiration for State rights, and the Burlington *Hawkeye*, a good party organ, thinks that "this is as good a time as any to revive popular demand for a just limitation of Federal control of local affairs."

Texas is having a unique experience. For months past a surplus has been piling up in the State Treasury, which already reaches about $2,000,000, and as the Legislature only meets regularly once in two years, the Gov-

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ernor is forced to call an extra session to dispose of the existing surplus and readjust taxation so as to prevent the development of another. Texas, it is well to remember, is a State which was awarded $4,000,000 out of the United States Treasury by the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," on the ground that it was too poor to educate its children alone, and must have help from Washington.

It is becoming more evident every day that some kind of a Training School for Republican Editors will have to be founded to meet the growing demand for organs that can be depended upon. There is scarcely a State in the North in which a want of this kind is not felt. Both the spirit and the education of the time appear to be in a "combine" against making editors of the sort needed. The wicked colleges are all teaching that protection, unlimited and unrevisable, is not a sacred thing. The tendency of the youth of the period, under the influence of intellectual leaders, both inside and outside of the colleges, is to drift towards tariff reform, towards liberal ideas in politics, and to take such a cheerful view of even party lines as not to be either charmed or frightened by a party name. As a natural result of this condition of things, Mugwumpism is cropping out in the newspapers everywhere. It is hard to keep that profession from catching something of the general infection. When the air is full of Mugwumpism, even an editor cannot help inhaling some of it. The trouble with it seems to be that when a man gets some of it into his system, he never fully recovers from it. He is in danger of "kicking" at the very moment when the party most needs his help. The only remedy which we can think of is a training school with so thorough a high-protection, straight-party course of study that it will turn out a select band of editors, warranted to stand by the party till the crack of doom.

Our esteemed contemporary the *Mail and Express* has introduced a new feature in journalism, which cannot be too highly commended. The wonder is that nobody has thought of it before. It begins the editorial page every day with a text of Scripture, as thus:

IN THE BEGINNING GOD CREATED THE HEAVEN AND THE EARTH.

One of our esteemed contemporaries prints Premier Mills's name Roger P. The *Tribune* should mind its P's and Q's more carefully.

AND GOD CREATED MAN IN HIS OWN IMAGE, IN THE IMAGE OF GOD CREATED HE HIM.

The Boulanger case did not take very long in trial. Ten minutes is a short time in which to present the defence, and the judges do not seem to have taken much longer to reach a decision.

This is a decided improvement on the *Herald's* practice of scattering through its editorial and news columns, in a heterogeneous way, quotations from Byron and other profane poets. A great deal of good may be done to a heedless, hurrying, and sin-ruined world by presenting to newspaper readers suddenly short passages from Holy Writ, which they might not otherwise ever see; and we know, in regard to the texts chosen by the *Mail and Express*, that the wayfaring man, though a fool, need not err therein. So much cannot be said for the miserable scraps from Byron's "Corsair" served up to us by the *Herald*.

The difficulty the Sophomore Class at Columbia College is said to experience in giving up the custom of burying, or "triumphing over," Legendre, is a curious illustration of the hold of traditions, even on the youthful mind. Hostility to a text-book or to a subject of study, finding expression in public demonstrations of joy at getting rid of it, is so distinctly a childish or schoolboy feeling that one would naturally expect that a young man on entering a university would be rather ashamed of it, as of a love of marbles, or peg-tops, or hoops. But it has survived at Columbia to this day, in spite of the growth of the College in numbers and the rise of the standard of age. This year it was even proposed to get up a steamboat excursion, and have "the burial" at sea, with the accompaniment of "free beer"; and the College paper, the *Spectator*, resented sharply an attempt on the part of some parents and professors to substitute for this celebration the annual bestowal of a prize for excellence in Legendre. According to the latest accounts, the steamboat excursion and "free beer" had been given up, and it was proposed to substitute a torch-light procession through the streets. We wonder whether the youths who are to take part in it, who are presumably from eighteen to nineteen years old, and have in most cases the advantage of coming from homes of more or less cultivation, have ever considered what must be the effect on the rest of the community, and especially of the youths who cannot go to college, of seeing a whole sophomore class parading publicly by way of expressing their detestation of study. These unspeakable sillinesses suggest the question whether it is not unfortunate that undergraduates continue still to be known in this country as "college boys."

As we remarked the other day, there appears to be little doubt that the Tories in England have for the moment "dished the Radicals." They are putting through or promising large measures of legislation on Liberal lines. In other words, they are dealing with the leading questions of the time much as Gladstone might be expected to deal with them, barring the Irish question. Goschen's conversion of the 3 per cents is one of those strokes of finance to which nobody has been supposed equal for the last twenty-five years but Gladstone. The County Government Bill, too, is very much such a one as the Liberals would have drafted, and there seems to be every sign that it will pass much in its present shape. All this is simply a repetition of the policy of the Tories ever since Peel's day. When they get into power, which they never do except by a sort of accident, they try to keep it by adopting the Liberal policy. In 1874 Disraeli made the mistake of supposing that the country was disgusted with Liberalism, and that he might go back to the old Tory ideas; the result was the brilliant foreign or "Elizabethan" policy, as Lord Salisbury called it, which came to such a disastrous end in 1880. That Lord Salisbury has learned wisdom by that venture is, however, plainly shown by his extremely cautious foreign policy to-day. It is, in all its main features, thoroughly Gladstonian. The question is now rising to many lips in England whether, if the Ministry succeed with the Local Government Bill, they will not attempt to solve the home-rule problem also on the Gladstonian lines, and thus be able to go to the country in 1892 with a yell of triumph. There is certainly nothing improbable in the supposition. They are ready to swallow anything that is plainly necessary to keep office, on the theory that it matters little what is done, provided it be done by the right sort of men.

Gen. Boulanger, having been placed on the retired list, has begun to run for the Chamber, and has issued an address. His programme is nearly as extensive as McGlynn's. His election is to be "a protest" against "the impotence into which the Government and Parliament have fallen," and a proclamation of the "necessity of upholding the national dignity and the integrity of French territory." If the Government and Parliament have really fallen into a state of impotence, and the national dignity and the integrity of the territory are really in danger, it will of course require almost superhuman exertions on the part of one man to set things to rights—a consideration which apparently has not occured to the General. So, also, it does not appear to have occurred to Dr. McGlynn that if the unintermitting efforts of the entire human race, from the dawn of history down to our own time, to abolish poverty have failed utterly, the task must be one to which no one man, or even society, would be equal. In fact, the mere contemplation of the load which both Boulanger and McGlynn now carry is enough to give the ablest and most industrious of us a genuine heartache.

The defeat and resignation of the French Ministry on so serious a proposal as the revision of the Constitution, made by a Boulangerite deputy, coming so close on the Grévy trouble, is another proof of the depth of the demoralization into which French politics has fallen. The division of all the parties in the Chamber into minute fractions not only explains how these ministerial crises are brought about, but perhaps, also, why they do not do more mischief. The "groups" unite readily enough to overthrow cabinets, but they cannot unite on any constructive policy, and thus the Republic, as the thing that is, remains intact. Boulanger's campaign, which assails the very form of the Government, will indicate pretty clearly whether the country districts are yet infected with the Parisian folly. A dissolution of the Chambers is doubtless not far off,

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THE ADMINISTRATION AND INDIANA.

MR. W. D. FOULKE, the President of the Indiana Civil-Service Association, went before Mr. Hale's Committee in Washington last week, and informed it that he made extensive investigations into the condition of the civil service in that State in 1885-6, and sent the result to the New York *Nation*, but that "that distinguished organ of Mugwumpery, for reasons unknown to him, had never published the facts." Well, we will now inform Mr. Foulke that the reason we did not publish "the facts" was, that we had not complete confidence in the collector. We knew nothing of Mr. Foulke's capacity as an investigator, and doubted his disinterestedness.

What the *Nation* thinks about the course of the Administration, either in Maryland or Indiana, has never been concealed. The President's mistakes in both States have been very serious. They have been based on the idea, which we believe is President Cleveland's own, that the civil service ought to be reformed on a sort of local-option plan—that is, that in States in which the reform sentiment was strong, the spoilsmen should be resisted, but that in States in which the reform sentiment was weak, they should be allowed to have their way. The result has been, both in Maryland and Indiana, a most shameful demoralization of the public service, which the President has witnessed with a calm born of the belief that only in this way could his party be educated up to the point of supporting reform everywhere. He has confined himself to the execution and careful extension of the existing Civil-Service Law, to the retention until the expiration of their term of the great body of Republican officers who were not covered by the law, and to reducing, considerably below what has been customary, the number of dismissals among those who held at will.

That this is not what he promised when elected, and that it is not what Mugwumps and other reformers expected when they supported him, we fully admit. Moreover, that it has been, as a mere matter of party policy, a very great blunder, we have not the smallest doubt. We believe that the loss of Indiana to the Democrats next fall has been made very probable by the scandals and abuses in the Government service which the Administration has permitted or connived at. We believe, moreover, that the hold of the Democratic party on the Government will never be made secure, except through the adoption of the civil-service-reform policy, without ifs, or buts, or exceptions. It is not a matter on which any President can long stand up before the American people crying "Good Lord" in one State and "Good Devil" in another, promoting purity in one place and giving rascals full swing in another fifty miles away. The thing is absurd on its face. "Horse sense" is enough to kill such a policy, even if love of righteousness did not do it.

A public journal has, however, two duties towards its readers. To aid them in forming opinions about the events of the day is one; to advise them what to do in politics under any given set of circumstances is another. We see clearly enough wherein President Cleveland has fallen short of the promise of his prime in the matter of civil-service reform, but we do not yet see clearly how the matter is to be remedied. It would be difficult to say what ought to be done, even if a reform of the civil service were all that was needed at this juncture to make the American people prosperous and happy, and if either of the great political parties were heart and soul in the work. But we all know that we have before us another question fully as important as the reform of the civil service, namely, the reform of the tariff, and one of more pressing interest to the bulk of the people. We know that our present surplus is a fountain of corruption, to which for depth or volume the spoils system can hardly be compared. We know, too, that little as the Democratic party cares for civil-service reform, the Republican party cares still less, because it makes no pretence of producing a President who will in that field do even half what President Cleveland has done. We know that the criticisms of all the Republican leaders and newspapers during the past three years on the President's shortcomings have been charges not of malfeasance, but of hypocrisy. They attack him for having failed to reform the civil service, but admit, with the utmost brass, that had he given the spoilsmen full swing, they would have had nothing to complain of.

We know, too, that practical politics consists in every country, since the fall of Adam, in the choice not between perfection and imperfection, but between two degrees of imperfection. President Cleveland is not all that we could wish him to be, and every sensible man will keep scanning the horizon during the next seven months for the appearance of something better. When anything appears, we promise to let our readers know. When we see a candidate who bids fair to be more of a reformer in all directions than President Cleveland, and a party which seems to be more devoted to all the great ends of Government than the Democratic party, we shall announce the fact, without fear or favor. We confess we discern no sign at present of anything half as good as President Cleveland just as he stands, with all his imperfections on his head.

The government of a great country, we must remind some of our readers, is not child's play. You cannot throw an instrument aside, and then go home and go to bed. Whenever in the great game of politics you reject one man, you must then and there choose another, and you cannot choose without comparison.

POWDERLY'S DESPAIR.

MR. POWDERLY has issued a very despondent address to the members of his order of Knights of Labor, the sum and substance of which is that the policy of promoting strikes among laborers which they have pursued during the past two or three years, has been a terrible mistake, and has produced nothing but misery; and that they must now, if they want to be happy and prosperous, go back to the original purposes of the organization, and use its funds in educational lectures and discussions. In fact, "a vigorous policy of educational work" is what he now wants, and is what, he maintains, he has always wanted. He says "from the 5th of September, 1879, he has written and talked against and opposed strikes." It would, we think, be very easy to dispose of these statements by means of the deadly parallel, but we are not interested in exposing Mr. Powderly's inconsistency. Whatever he may have said at other times, he is now talking like a sensible man, and yet his manifesto is a pitiful confession of weakness and incapacity, to come from one who was dreaming two years ago of organizing a society of manual laborers which should instruct capitalists in the management of capital, lawyers in the practice of the law, and statesmen in the conduct of the Government.

No matter what he may have ever said or written against strikes, he is indirectly responsible for their multiplicity during the last few years, in that he led his followers to suppose that he had created a new instrument of extraordinary power, which would bring all people who did not work with their hands to their knees before manual laborers, and finally give manual laborers the control of the industry of the country, and even of the Government. He created, too, and laboriously diffused the impression that manual laborers are a class apart from the rest of the community, with interests different from and opposed to those of people who do not work with their hands, or have saved money, or made it in trade, or commerce, or manufactures. In other words, he has been the apostle of a subtle or disguised sort of anarchy, many times more mischievous and dangerous than the variety preached by John Most. When he had created this impression, his dupes naturally went to work to try the new machine, to "show their power" to the capitalists and the Government, and "put Labor on top." It has taken five or six years to work out his experiment, and it has been a terribly costly one. It has caused untold suffering among the working classes, has directly wasted hundreds of thousands of dollars of their money, and, indirectly, millions of the capital on which they have to rely for employment. If Mr. Powderly be a man of any moral elevation, the sight of his seven years' work must fill him with poignant remorse. He does something to expiate his offence, however, by publishing the confession of discomfiture which appeared in Thursday's papers.

A good many people will probably now ask us what, since Powderly's plan is a failure, is to be done to prevent this continual strife between labor and capital, and prevent these incessant and ruinous strikes. We recommend those who ask this question in good faith to sit down and read the history of the great strikes of the past seven years before they call on us for an answer. They will find that every one of them was

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due in great part to the ignorance and excitability of the workingmen, and the readiness with which they are governed by determined and unscrupulous agitators. In hardly one do we discover a solid business grievance at the bottom of the trouble. In not one do we find the strikers proposing any remedy which would not virtually take property out of the hands of the owners, and destroy the discipline under which large bodies of men engaged in a common enterprise must live in order to accomplish anything useful.

The demands made on the corporations, too, by outside critics, in the matter of conciliating Labor and making it contented, seem not much more reasonable than those of the Knights. Even Prof. Hadley—a most competent observer—called on the railroad companies the other night, at the Commonwealth Club, to put at their head, for this purpose, "leaders of men" instead of "leaders of dollars"; as if either leaders of men or leaders of dollars could be had by advertising, as if they were not both among the scarcest products of the globe, as if the railroads did not all do everything in their power to get hold of men of the highest administrative capacity, and as if their failure to do so in some cases were not one of the commonest experiences of all human organizations. Lamentations over the shortcomings of railroad presidents and mining presidents are simply part of the eternal wail of humanity over the badness of generals, the short-sightedness of statesmen, the wrong-headedness of judges, and dishonesty of bank cashiers. One of the few uses of the Knights of Labor has been the illustration the history of the order affords of the difficulty of filling responsible places with the right sort of men in the present condition of human nature. Those members of the order who are dissatisfied with their General Master - Workman, their General Worthy Foremen, and their Outside Esquires, now "know how it is themselves" in the matter of discovering great men and setting them to work for the public benefit.

The truth is, that at the bottom of our labor troubles are simply the ignorance and irresponsibility and want of business training of the laboring class, and for this there is no remedy but time and patience and education. Even Powderly begins to see this, and confesses it. If any one asks us why we have so many railroad strikes, we answer by asking why there are so many revolutions in Guatemala. If the men who want to take the Reading or C., B. & Q. Railroad out of the hands of the present management were in a majority among us, we should have a political revolution, or an attempt at one, after every election. We must be patient with them, and bear as well as we can the loss their folly and blindness inflict on the community; but let us have done with quackery.

AN OBJECT LESSON IN TAXATION.

AMONG current tariff discussions we note a revival of the argument that it is folly to remove duties on imports, as the benefit will accrue to the foreign producer and not to the American consumer; and the repeal of the duty on coffee, and the subsequent events, are advanced as evidence that the argument is good. Senator Edmunds, in his *Harper's Magazine* article, lays stress upon this example, and others go so far as to say that no sooner was the import duty repealed by the United States than Brazil imposed an equivalent export duty. A slight examination of facts will show that neither assertion has any real basis.

Before 1862 coffee was imported into the United States free, but the war tariff imposed a heavy duty. The Brazilian planter believed himself ruined, prices fell suddenly, and predictions were made freely that the planter would have the bulk of his crop thrown upon his hands, and must dispose of it at less than cost. These fears proved groundless. Owing to heavy purchases of the United States for supplying its troops with coffee, the consumption did not materially decline, and the market recovered its normal condition. In 1867, when the finances of Brazil were thrown into disorder by the war with Paraguay, and every available source of income was utilized, an export duty was levied upon *all* exports, coffee being the principal one. The rate of duty was fixed at 9 per cent. on the custom-house valuation; and in addition to this imperial tax, the province in which the coffee was produced collected another tax varying from 4 to 7 per cent., the rate differing among the provinces. It is easily seen that fiscal necessity was the basis of these taxes. Brazil had no direct taxes; it still has no direct tax on land, though cabinet after cabinet has recommended such a tax, not only for revenue purposes, but to make unprofitable the holding immense tracts of land in an uncultivated condition. The whole prosperity and economy of the nation was based upon coffee; and today it is coffee that supports the provinces, the railroads, the empire, and the great mass of the population. The point to be emphasized, however, is, that Brazil imposed an export duty on coffee long before the United States seriously considered a reduction of the import duty.

These facts were well known in Congress when, in 1871, the duty was reduced from 5 to 3 cents per pound. Mr. Partridge, then Minister to Brazil, had reported: "It is safe to say that there is very little (in my opinion, no) hope of inducing them (Brazil) to reduce the export duties" on coffee and rubber; and he sent an elaborate table of prices for two years, showing that the export duty amounted to about 13 per cent. on the value of the coffee. In 1873, the duty on coffee in this country was abolished, but, under pressure of the financial crisis of that year, it was proposed to restore it to enable the Treasury to meet the requirements upon it. In the same year, the Brazilian Treasury showed a small surplus in the estimates, and an attempt was made to reduce the imperial export duty from 9 to 7 per cent., a move that was defeated by the Legislature's voting to increase its own salaries. Is there any evidence that Brazil sought to secure advantage through the action of the United States?

But, it is said, the planters at once raised their prices, and so the American consumer derived no advantage from the reduction of duty—as though a seller who does not possess a monopoly, can raise the price of his goods arbitrarily. It is true that prices did rise, and that they did rise by about the amount of duty; but it is a great mistake to assert that the rise was an immediate result of the repeal. The table of prices prepared by Mr. Partridge shows that the rise had begun in 1871, and that the average price in December, 1871, was quite as high as it was in the latter part of 1872. Coffee (Rio) that was worth 9 cents in January, 1871, had risen to 13½ cents in December, to 14 1-3 cents in January, 1872, and to 14.7 cents in December, 1872. In 1869 the import value of coffee was 9.8 cents, under a duty of 5 cents per pound; in 1872 10.9 cents, when the duty was 3 cents; and in 1873 14.4 cents, when the import was free. Of course the planters benefited by the rise, but through no action of their own. The fact that prices could be maintained in the face of such a reduction in duty only shows that the demand kept up with the supply; that the real equilibrium of the markets had not been altered. This is shown by the fact that Ceylon coffee, of which little is consumed in this country, also began to rise in 1870, and reached its highest point in 1874, at the time when Rio in New York had risen to 19.4 cents per pound—a rise so great that the duty removed becomes too insignificant a factor, and short crops and speculation must explain it. Rio on the London market passed through nearly the same fluctuations as in New York, yet there was no change of duties to affect the price.

It must be remembered that in the same market there can be but one price for one commodity, and it would argue an absurdity to suppose that a French or English merchant could purchase coffee in Brazil at a price lower or higher than an American. Had the United States been the only market for Brazilian coffee, and had the relation of demand to supply remained the same, the removal of the duty would in the end have modified the price, and certainly in favor of the consumer. But both of these conditions were absent, and although imports increased rapidly (with a few fluctuations), they were not able to overpass the demand. Further, it was not until 1882 that the import value of coffee in New York fell to what it had been previous to 1872. To suppose that Brazil planters had been able to manipulate the market for so many years in their interest and at the expense of the consumer, is to disregard the most common maxims of trade.

Under these circumstances, it is absurd to attribute the condition of the market to a mere shuffling of duties, whether duties on imports or on exports. In 1882 Brazil reduced the export duty from 9 to 7 per cent., but the provincial duty remained unchanged. The prices were 12.5 cents in 1881, 10 cents in 1882, 8 cents in 1883, 7 cents in 1886, and 10.7 cents in 1887. Is the influence of the duty apparent? That the re-

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moval of the import duty by Congress was an advantage to the American consumer, may be shown by the fact that he would otherwise have been compelled to pay the market price of the coffee and a duty besides.

SILVER TOMFOOLERY IN THE SENATE.

NOTHING more discouraging or more unexpected has turned up in the struggle to get rid of the Treasury surplus than the apparent determination of the Senate to fasten upon the Bond Purchase Bill measures for currency inflation and for juggling with silver. Senator Plumb's amendment introduces a new kind of money into the multifarious currency now existing, viz., Treasury notes which are not legal tender except to and from the Government and from one national bank to another. As an oddity in finance, however, this is surpassed by a scheme which Senator Stewart of Nevada has offered as a new amendment, and which proposes to make Government warehouse receipts for silver bullion legal tender, and to require the Government to issue such receipts to all depositors of silver bullion at the current market value of silver; the value to be announced by the Secretary of the Treasury twice each month, by computing the average price of silver during the fifteen days next preceding the announcement.

We remark, in the first place, that the present silver certificates are not legal tender. Consequently, the proposed warehouse receipts are not only different from anything else in our existing currency, or any other that the world ever saw, but they are to be invested with a higher character than the certificates now in circulation. The warehouse certificates are to be redeemed by the Government in gold or silver coin, at the option of the Secretary of the Treasury. This makes the Government the buyer of all the outstanding warehouse certificates whenever the price of silver falls below the price at which they were issued. If, for example, a million dollars' worth of silver is deposited when the price is 46d. per ounce, the holders will keep them as long as the market price is at or above 46d. But whenever the price falls below that figure they will be sent in for redemption. In other words, the Government will, in the language of the Street, issue "puts" on silver to all the world—not sell these "puts," but give them away for nothing; a very convenient form of speculation, and one which ought in fairness to be extended to the owners of all other kinds of portable property. In order that the Treasury may always be in funds to "redeem" these warehouse receipts, it is provided that the Government may coin the silver taken on storage in sufficient quantities to meet the demand for redemption. This simple device transfers the load upon the public in their character as traders and wage-workers. Without this proviso they would carry the load in their character as taxpayers. Mr. Stewart's plan is a roundabout method of insuring the price of silver to all owners and producers thereof in the four quarters of the globe, the United States being the insurer and getting no premium for the risk.

On the 8th of April, 1886, Mr. Bland got a test vote in the House on his bill for free coinage, and was beaten by a majority of 37. Whether he and his followers will accept the Stewart measure, if it ever reaches the House, is doubtful, since it involves an abandonment of the "dollar of the fathers" and the ratio of 16 to 1. It recognizes the market value of silver as the coining rate, the ratio to gold being now about 21 to 1. The real object of the measure is to "steady the market" for silver at the expense of the people of the United States. It must, therefore, be condemned as fraudulent.

Next in the list comes Senator Beck's amendment, which proposes to retire the present gold and silver certificates as fast as they are returned to the Treasury, and to issue hereafter "coin certificates," on the deposit of either gold or silver coin in the Treasury; also to require the Secretary to issue forthwith "coin certificates" for all the surplus gold and silver in the Treasury in excess of the $100,000,000 gold which constitutes the greenback-redemption fund. These coin certificates are to be redeemable in either gold or silver, at the option of the Secretary They are to be paid out for all Government obligations not made specifically payable in other kinds of money, but are not made legal tender. It is easy to see what Mr. Beck's whimsy is. He fancies that a law of this kind will abolish the distinction between gold and silver. But it will do nothing of the kind. The holders of gold certificates will keep them. There are $96,000,000 outstanding. As no more can be issued after Mr. Beck's bill passes, they will command a slight premium, or at least a preference sufficient to induce people to pay other kinds of money at the custom-house. The new "coin certificates" will all be silver certificates under a change of name. The issuing of coin certificates in place of all the coin in the Treasury in excess of $100,000,000 gold will not make the Government any richer. It will be poorer by the cost of engraving and printing the certificates. Putting this money into a new form will not get it out of the Treasury. The surplus will be just as aggravating as before, because more money will be coming in than goes out. We fail to see any point in Mr. Beck's measure, except as a shock to common sense (which is quite needless in his case), and a further scare to the business community, with consequent depression to trade and industry, of which there is more than enough already.

THE MINORITY REPORT.

THE report of the minority of the Ways and Means Committee assumes that the trouble about the surplus in the Treasury is altogether artificial, that it is of the President's making altogether, and that it might now be easily averted by applying the idle money to the "payment" of the public debt. "If," they say, "'the absolute peril' to the business of the country described by the President in his message last December as resulting from an existing and increasing surplus was imminent and well-founded, how easily he could have averted it by the purchase of outstanding bonds with the surplus money in the Treasury—a power which he possessed clear and undoubted under the act of March 3, 1881. To have thus used the surplus would have been direct and business-like, just what a prudent business man would have done with his idle money—called in his creditors and applied it to his debts. . . . If disaster results from the failure of the President to use the surplus now in the Treasury, as the law authorizes him to use it, in *payment* of our existing debts, and if the majority in the House, which alone can originate a bill to reduce the revenue, fails to send to the Senate a bill of that character, the responsibility will rest with them. The minority are powerless."

It is scarcely necessary to say to any well-informed person that this is a deliberate misrepresentation. Everybody knows that the bonded debt cannot be "paid" until it matures, and that the purchase of the bonds depends altogether upon the willingness of the holders to sell. The suggestion that the Government ought to do as private individuals would, *i. e.*, call its creditors together and apply its surplus to the liquidation of its debts, would be applicable to the receiver of a bankrupt estate who was able to pay something less than 100 cents on the dollar. It is not customary for a solvent man of business to call his creditors together at all. He simply pays his debts as they fall due by sending his checks to the holders of his paper. But did anybody ever hear of a merchant calling a mass meeting of his creditors and saying to them: "I wish to pay 125 cents on the dollar of my debts; will you be so kind as to appoint a committee to apportion the money ratably among yourselves, so that nobody may get less than 25 per cent. bonus on his claims"?

A report which carries in it such a manifest falsehood as this, is open to suspicion at every point. Consequently, we cannot be surprised to read a paragraph like the following:

"If the majority desire to insure the handing over of our steel-rail market to our English rivals, the proposed duty of $11 will accomplish this purpose, unless the workingmen who are employed in producing the raw materials and finished products of our steel-rail works are willing to accept still lower wages than they are now receiving, and the railroad companies which transport the raw materials are willing to greatly reduce their freight rates. Have the majority any assurance that the workingmen and the railroad companies are willing to accept these conditions? Neither were heard before the Committee."

What are the facts here? Simply these, that American steel-rail mills are now making contracts at $31.50 per ton, without any change in the tariff; that the English price for rails is $20.50 on the furnace bank, and that if the duty were reduced to $11 per ton, not a rail could be imported, because the freight charge would still amount to an absolute prohibition. Add $11 to $20.50 and we have exactly the price at which steel rails are now turned out by the thousands of tons in western Pennsylvania.

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But, says this precious minority report, "the supply of steel rails to the Pacific Coast is now in the hands of foreigners, because of the cheap transportation by water from foreign ports, the existing duty of $17 not being sufficient to enable our manufacturers to compete for that trade." This paragraph is the key to the whole report. It embodies the idea that the buyers of steel rails have no rights—that the consumer must in all cases be sacrificed to the producer. The issue is thus clearly presented. It runs through the report from beginning to end. No article is so necessary to the comfort of the people, nothing so indispensable to daily life, whether to the poor or to the rich, but that the buyers must pay tribute to somebody, and as much tribute as the producer considers an adequate profit to his business. It may be tin plate, which is hardly produced in this country at all, and of which we must have $16,000,000 worth every year, paying a bonus of nearly 34 per cent. on it, or it may be common lime for house building, which has been produced here since the days of the Pilgrims—all must pay a tariff premium to somebody. It must be paid not for revenue, but upon principle—the principle that the consumer has no rights. Nothing could be more explicit than the assertion and definition of this principle. It is in direct contravention of the report of the Republican Tariff Commission of 1883. It is a doctrine that will rend the party in twain, if not this year, surely within a very few years. As we write these words, the Minneapolis *Journal* of March 31 reaches us with a most solemn warning to the Republicans in Congress not to commit themselves to such doctrines, if they desire to save their party from defeat. Says the *Journal*:

"If the Republican leaders of the House were conscious of the real intensity of the feeling among Western Republicans in favor of the Republicans in Congress formulating a liberal tariff-reform measure, and placing the party on record in favor of an honest and intelligent reduction on the necessaries of life, they would not fail to submit some such proposition in Congress. They certainly cannot realize the true state of feeling among Western Republicans, or they would see the serious danger in pursuing the present policy.

"There is no excuse for it. There is no reason why the Republican representatives should not have drawn up and presented to the House, long ago, a measure which should stand as a clear and definite statement of the Republican position with respect to tariff reform. The failure to do so is the most serious aspect of the political situation. It is producing a feeling of restlessness everywhere among Western Republicans that threatens party disintegration. This is not stating the case too strongly."

The feeling described by this Minneapolis paper is not confined to Minnesota. The Western States are honeycombed by it. It is not confined to the West; even New England is torn by it. Tariff-reform clubs are springing up in Massachusetts and Rhode Island which cut across party lines with the utmost impartiality. The public mind will nowhere accept the dogma that the rights of the consumer are to be sacrificed to the producer, at the option of the latter and to the extent that he desires. This is the gospel of robbery. Any party that proclaims it will be annihilated sooner or later.

RECENT AMERICAN LEGISLATION.

No one who reviews the laws passed in the States and Territories of the United States during the past two years, can fail to be struck with the increased conservatism that marks the action of all the legislative assemblies; save only when such conservatism would stand in the way of some interest, real or supposed, of the laboring class, or would check that movement which is said to embody the rights of women. The most reactionary by far of these conservative measures is a stringent statute against the holding of land by aliens. This is so notable and so little realized yet by foreigners, going, as it does in some Northwestern States, beyond the severity of the common law to unjust extremes, that it invites examination in some detail. It invalidates in some cases even the title to real estate already acquired, and the title of home corporations whose stock may yet be chiefly held by American citizens. It may even be stated broadly that *it is now unsafe for a foreigner to attempt to hold land in the West.* Five States—Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Colorado, and Nebraska—have passed such acts; while the new Florida Constitution and the Territories of Idaho and Arizona have adopted more liberal provisions, both of which latter, however, are now in conflict with U. S. S., 1887, c. 340. Under that statute it is in effect provided that alien persons or corporations may not acquire or hold land, except by inheritance or in the collection of debts, and that domestic corporations of which one-fifth of the stock is held by aliens, may not acquire or hold land at all in any of the Territories or in the District of Columbia. The same law in effect obtains in Minnesota, and in Wisconsin, except as to the provision against domestic corporations, and in Colorado; but the alien has three years in which to sell lands acquired by descent or for debt, and the statute applies to agricultural, arid, or range lands only. The law of Illinois is much more detailed, and stricter, in that it includes even land now already acquired, the alien owner of which has, however, his lifetime in which to sell the same, though only three years is given after foreclosure of a mortgage taken thereon, or, after his death, to his heirs; while in Nebraska, no non-resident alien can acquire or hold land either by purchase or descent; and if an alien now holding land shall die, the land escheats, and his heirs are to be paid only the value thereof, to be fixed by the judge, treasurer, and clerk of the county, the expenses of which appraisement, by way of adding insult to injury, the heirs are made to pay.

The next subject in which a reactionary tendency is shown is that of divorce. Except that in New Mexico new divorce laws have been passed, leaving South Carolina the only State in which there is no divorce, there are few States or Territories in which new causes of divorce have been enacted, and, in many, causes previously existing have been abolished. Thus, in North Carolina, a divorce is granted upon conviction for crime. In Oregon and Idaho the intoxication habit need be continued only one year to be cause for divorce; and failure by the husband to support the wife only one year in Idaho and six months in Arizona; and so desertion need last only one year in Oregon and six months in Arizona. But impotence is no longer a cause for divorce in Idaho and Arizona, nor intoxication on the part of the wife, in Arizona; adultery is a cause, in Arizona, only when the party is taken *in flagrante delicto*. In Oregon a divorce for crime is denied unless prosecuted within one year of the conviction; and in Arizona the "omnibus" clause has been repealed. In Rhode Island and Arizona either party may be a witness in divorce proceedings, and in Maine and Arizona either party divorced has now liberty to marry again at any time; but in Michigan the court may decree against remarriage during a term not exceeding two years. In New Hampshire alimony may now be decreed to the husband. In Arizona divorce from bed and board has been abolished.

Turning now to marriage, we find that it is no longer declared, in Arizona, to be a mere civil contract; but in Idaho, witnesses are no longer necessary. And in Arizona "all persons who have heretofore lived together as husband and wife and shall continue so to live for one year after July 1, 1887," are declared legally married. In Idaho, as in California, neither party is bound to a promise of marriage made in ignorance of the other's want of chastity. The age of consent is made, in New York and Arizona, eighteen in the male and sixteen in the female; and in Illinois and Arizona marriages between first cousins have been forbidden. In Arizona marriages between a white and a negro or mulatto, and in North Carolina marriages between an Indian and a negro, have been made void. In Idaho and Maine either party may marry again without being subject to an indictment for bigamy if the other has been absent and is believed to be dead; though in Maine such party must have been absent seven years.

When we come to the rights of married women, we meet the radical tendency. In Rhode Island and Oregon the woman's suffrage amendment was defeated; but in Massachusetts the office of overseer of the poor, and in Alabama that of notary public, may be held by women. Ohio, Idaho, Minnesota, Dakota, and Arizona have enacted laws changing the entire status of married women. Thus in Ohio and Idaho the California code is now followed, while in Minnesota and Dakota it has been enacted that "A married woman shall retain the same legal existence and personality after marriage as before, and shall receive the same protection of all her rights as a woman which her husband does as a man," and may sue or be sued; but this does not apply to voting or holding office. In Alabama and Ohio neither husband nor wife is liable for the acts of the other, as such. Pennsylvania and Alabama have also enacted new "married women's acts" as to their property and powers; and in these States, as well as Connecticut, Ohio, Nevada, and Arizona, the husband acquires no rights in the property of the wife. In all these, and also in Nebraska, New Mexico, and South Carolina, property acquired by the wife after marriage is her separate property. In Pennsylvania and in Idaho, married women may make wills as if sole; in New York conveyances or liens between husband and wife are made valid, and so, in Ohio and Alabama, as to all contracts between them. In Ohio and Arizona married women may make deeds without the husband's joinder, as if sole.

As bearing on the labor question, we find a great many States reënacting or enlarging their mechanics' lien laws. A most remarkable statute, unprecedented in common-law jurisprudence, has been enacted in Minnesota, that all labor performed by contract upon a building shall be a first lien thereon; and that *the fact that the person performing the labor was not enjoined from so doing is made conclusive evidence of the contract.* A legal holiday, called "Labor Day," has been created in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Colorado, and Oregon. And many States have

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made provision for arbitration, for weekly payment of operatives, payment in money and not in goods, etc., etc.

Florida is the only State which has recently adopted a new constitution, though it has been vainly attempted in Kentucky and Delaware. The notable points of the Florida Constitution are that it leaves out the civil-rights provisions, provides that negroes and whites shall not be taught in the same schools, and forbids their intermarriage, provides for married women's separate property, provides that members of Congress must have been five years resident in the State and ten in the United States, abolishes the office of Lieutenant-Governor, makes the judiciary elective and shortens the judges' tenure of office, in effect prohibits State debts, limits the amount of land granted settlers to eighty acres, allows local option in the liquor traffic, and gives the Legislature full power to regulate the duties and charges of common carriers, but prohibits their accepting free passes. Amendments must now be ratified by three-fifths of the elected members of each house; and amendments to the national Constitution may not be ratified by any assembly elected before they were submitted. In Rhode Island also there is a prohibition amendment; and it is pending in several other States.

The law of real estate seems to have reached a condition of permanent stability. Massachusetts, indeed, has enacted a noteworthy statute, that all conditions or restrictions in the grant of land shall be construed to be limited, except in the case of charities, to the term of thirty years only. In Connecticut foreclosure by sale is now allowed in the case of real-estate mortgages. New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Illinois have prohibited the acquirement of easements for lines of telegraph or telephone; and in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, and Connecticut an unnecessary fence six feet or more in height, erected maliciously or so as to obstruct the view of adjacent owners or deprive them of light and air, is actionable as a nuisance. The use of seals in conveyances has been abolished in Colorado, Idaho, and Arizona; and so, in New Hampshire, wills need no longer be sealed.

The laws of descent of property have been more changed. Thus, New Mexico has abandoned the old Spanish law and followed the Indiana statute, while Arizona has copied that of Texas. A notable tendency has been shown to abolish the estates of courtesy and dower (in New Mexico, Arizona, and Connecticut), or to make the estates of husband or wife upon the other's decease identical (in Ohio). Idaho prohibits the devise of more than one-third of the estate to charitable purposes, as in California.

In commercial law the new legislation has been very varied in subject, but not large in amount. The usual statutes prohibiting the fraudulent issue of warehouse receipts or bills of lading, and making them prima-facie evidence in the hands of the holder, and negotiable or transferrable by endorsement, on which a bill has lately been introduced into Congress, have been repealed in New York and adopted in the States of Virginia, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Arkansas. In Minnesota crop mortgages given before seed sown for more than a year ahead have been made invalid, but in Dakota liens on crops for seed advanced are authorized. In Wisconsin birds, beasts, and dogs have been made property and subject to larceny. In Pennsylvania and Idaho one who sells goods by sample is now held by statute to a warranty that the goods are equal to the sample; but in New York a partner is no longer liable civilly to any person injured for fraud in limited partnerships. Bankers are given a general lien, in Idaho, upon all property in their hands for balances due from the owner. In Michigan and Texas buying or selling of "futures" is made a misdemeanor, and in Michigan contracts or checks given for such "futures" are void. The legal rate of interest has been reduced to 6 per cent. in Michigan and to 7 per cent. in Nevada and Arizona; and compounding of interest is forbidden in Idaho. Stringent usury laws have been enacted in Mississippi, Idaho, and Arkansas; and in Alabama a banker is guilty of a misdemeanor who discounts at a higher rate than 8 per cent. In Minnesota any provision increasing the rate of interest after maturity, or after the note is made, works a forfeiture of all interest. In Pennsylvania the mortgagee is forbidden to contract for the payment of taxes besides interest; and in many Middle, Western, and Southwestern States new tax-codes have been passed which may work to the great and unjust injury of non-resident mortgagees. In fact the tax laws, together with lax foreclosure statutes, are what chiefly render Western mortgages unsafe, and not any general want of value in the Western real estate itself. But this subject is too large to be more than mentioned here.

It is pleasing to find that, despite our protective tariff, the nation is beginning to find that forests may be of more value than lumber. Bounties or exemption from taxation for the growth of trees have in the last two years been established in Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Utah; and Maine, Connecticut, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Tennessee, Nevada, and Idaho have established "arbor days," wherein those who do not go to base-ball matches may plant trees. And the extreme Western States continue laudably to provide irrigation laws.

Of general political interest there is not much. Ohio has discontinued its October elections, and Nevada has disfranchised Mormons. The anti-Mongolian laws in California, Oregon, and Nevada are continued. Notable election laws have been adopted in a few States and are pending in several more, but with these the readers of the *Nation* are already familiar. Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Maine have had to adopt "standard" time, though the town of Eastport still riotously rejects this docking of a precious hour of its daylight.

In concluding, we may be glad to note that the codification madness appears to be checked. Only Idaho and Montana—Territories subject intellectually to California—have adopted a few further sections of the code now threatening New York. And no State has further presumed to "repeal the common law."

A COUNCIL OF WOMEN.

BALTIMORE, April 3, 1888.

WHEN the Empress Victoria of Germany, replying to addresses presented by a number of educational and charitable associations of which she is a patroness, availed of the occasion to declare her conception of a princess's duty, she epitomized the general opinion of their responsibility which is held by educated, thoughtful women the world over; certainly she strangely reëchoed the estimate and measure of that responsibility as stated and reiterated by numberless women at the International Council of Women which has been in session in Washington during the past week. The meagre telegraphic report quotes the Empress as saying that her "foremost and most sacred duty will be the care of her suffering husband; at the same time she is reminded that she has *other* social duties. The moral and intellectual education of women, the sanitary condition of the laboring classes, and the improvement of the facilities by which women may earn a livelihood, will constantly be before her—holding that the noblest vocation of a princess is an untiring activity in the work of ameliorating the condition of the classes."

If, in the above sentence, we replace the word *princess* by the more extended and significant word *woman*, the most cynical will have to confess that, from the royal lady on the throne of the youngest (and yet the oldest) European empire, to the thoughtful working-woman who "represents" hundreds of female members of farmers' granges and labor organizations, earnest, conscientious women, if fairly judged by their own utterances and actions, hold but one ideal towards which to strive, no matter how diverse their stations, their training, their efforts, and their "views." This fact it is which gives value to the utterances of a first International Council of Women.

As one whose sympathies did not go out cordially to this feminine conclave, when it was still a "programme" merely, a report of the impression received and sympathy aroused by its work may not be unwelcome to readers of the *Nation*.

Whatever difference of opinion may exist between men and women, or between women and women, in regard to the political enfranchisement of women, it is impossible for thoughtful members of either sex, or any class, not to be interested in or curious in regard to the proceedings and tone of this "Council." Although called, organized, and I believe paid for, by the National Woman Suffrage Association of the United States, to celebrate the fortieth anniversary of the first Woman's Rights Convention, its special object was to bring together delegates from educational and philanthropic associations the world over, who should report to their fellow-workers in varied spheres their several aims, successes, and hopes. It was further expected that out of this preliminary conference would grow permanent national councils of women for the United States and other countries, and that from these national organizations would eventually be formed a permanent International Council, representing all women working in any *organized* movements for the elevation of the moral and the amelioration of the physical condition of mankind.

The active managers and many of the speakers were advocates of the extension of the franchise to women, but the programme of subjects covered the wide and human field of energy and reform included under the general divisions of Education, Philanthropies, Temperance, Industries, Professions, Organization, Legal Conditions, Social Purity, and Political Conditions. This list offered topics of interest sure to appeal to whole classes of women who, if not antagonistic, are certainly indifferent to the political privilege of the ballot. Indeed, with rare modesty—or wise self-restraint—the originators of the Conference named their own special hobby as the subject for the last day, and allowed every other existing or struggling cause to state its work done and explain its value before presenting what they claim as the open sesame to effective accomplishment of any and all moral, social, and political purification.

Without going into details, which have been, or will be, fully given by the daily press and by the organs of special causes and organizations, let us see if there are not lessons which a

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wise outside public may learn—lessons which, if taken to heart, may be not unimportant results of this unique assemblage.

To make what follows clear to the uninitiated, it may be well to refer to the origin and composition of the first Woman's Rights Convention, of which this International Council of forty years later has arisen as a claimed and recognized sequence. Among the rejected women delegates to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention, held in London in 1840, were two Americans, Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton, who then and there determined on their return to America to call a "Woman's Rights Convention." It was not until eight years later that these two, with Martha C. Wright and Mary Ann McClintock, issued, without signature, however, the circular announcing that "a convention to discuss the social, civil, and religious condition and rights of women will be held in the Wesleyan Chapel, at Seneca Falls, N. Y., on Wednesday and Thursday, July 19 and 20 current, commencing at ten o'clock A. M. During the first day the meeting will be exclusively for women, who are earnestly invited to attend. The public generally are invited to be present on the second day, when Lucretia Mott of Philadelphia and other ladies and gentlemen will address the Convention."

Gathered in a small interior town of New York State, this Convention was attended by a comparative handful of what the public called enthusiasts and fanatics. James Mott presided; his wife, Lucretia, stated the object of the meeting to be to consider the degraded condition of women, and the need of efforts for her education and elevation. The suffrage resolution was hotly opposed, and only carried by a small majority, on the plea that it seemed the key to all other reforms. The story of many successive Women's Rights Conventions must be disinterred from heaps of newspaper witticisms and sarcasm, with occasional notices of such *facts* as the grants to women of citizenship in two Territories, municipal suffrage in one State, and school suffrage in one-half of the States of the Union. The significant fruits of this persistent demand for the suffrage, however, are not those advances which have been made towards possession of the franchise, but the correspondingly much greater gains for women in all other attempts for the attainment of industrial and legal justice and equality.

Assembled in the capital of the nation, received by the President and his wife on the same terms as any other organized body of citizens, the Council just adjourned was composed of women from every part of our own country, from Great Britain, India, France, Finland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The delegates represented thirty-nine partially organized associations, whose very titles emphasize the growth in public opinion, social freedom, and moral tone which has taken place in the past quarter of a century; professional, educational, or philanthropic work not so organized being presented by individual members willing to report on their particular "occupation." Ridicule must call a halt before the names of such women as Miss Frances Willard of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the Pundita Ramabai, Mme. Bogelot, Director of the reform work of Prison of St.-Lazare, Paris, Miss Clara Barton of the Red Cross Society, Mrs. Sarah Cooper, President of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association, San Francisco, or Miss Alice Fletcher, Special Indian Agent of the United States Government. Their work is independent of and superior to the suffrage agitation—which assertion brings us naturally to some reflections that can be merely outlined. If the facts justify them, any reader can amplify them as his or her sympathies dictate.

One cannot read the speeches of these women, and have felt the power of their earnestness, for two sessions daily, for one week, without feeling, in the *Nation's* own words, "that the talk, voluminous though it be, will do good, help to correct mistakes, and make some dark things clear." We think that both the facts and the theories presented throw enough light on "dark things" to justify—

(1.) The belief—that the political enfranchisement of women is not coming in this generation, at least.

(2.) The trust—that when it does come, women will be fairly well prepared to use it intelligently, and as a mercifully merciless lever whereby to further moral and social development, but without any serious rivalry with men for offices and political rewards.

(3.) The warning—to those men and women who are active or passive anti-woman-suffragists, that, in proportion as they wish to postpone the political enfranchisement of women, should they endeavor to bring about—the men by legislation, and both by public countenance and financial support—those reforms the accomplishment of which is the sincere and avowed goal of the suffragists themselves.

Give woman equal rights and opportunities in the universities, professions, and trades—protect her as child, wife, and mother, from the greed and lust of men—avail of her intelligence and sympathy in dealing with the deep problems which poverty and progress thrust on us for settlement—get rid of the idea (treating it as a survival, after all, of a legitimate but lower stage of development) of the "superiority" or "inferiority" of either sex—their "differences" will not be affected by opinion or legislation, and the right of suffrage will become either a dead issue or a natural sequence; in neither case much to be dreaded.

The social philosopher is privileged to draw some comforting convictions from this peaceful array of women, which, in spite of its sponsoring organization, testified, even by its most radical and righteous denunciations of existing conditions—

That the best energy of the best type of women finds its natural and congenial sphere in domestic, educational, philanthropic work, and will continue to do so;

That the great majority of those women who have devoted their lives to agitating the question of female suffrage have done so only because they believed the ballot was the short cut to justice and equality before the law for themselves and their children (for other women and *their* children), especially when this is needed for that saddest of all protection, legal defence for outraged womanhood, and against brutality towards innocent, helpless childhood;

That the Christian definition of "neighbor" is entering into the heart of women in a marvellous way at the present time—that a deep and earnest sense of duty and responsibility from women to each other and to the whole world around them is tending to infuse them as a class, and so fuse them into a mass to leaven the world;

That there is growing a feeling of universal kinship, a human fellowship in aspirations, an international bond of sympathies, the increase of a sentiment much higher and more generous than purely personal or local aims and rights—for while being the greater, it still includes the less.

Therefore we read without fear or foreboding that, before adjourning, an American National Council of Women was formed, and that with true national instinct they adopted a constitution, of which the following preamble states their "aims":

"We women of the United States, sincerely believing that the best good of our homes and nation will be advanced by our greater unity of thought, sympathy, and purpose, and that an organized movement of women will best conserve the highest good of the family and the State, do hereby band ourselves together in a confederation of workers committed to the overthrow of all forms of ignorance and injustice, and to the application of the Golden Rule to society, custom, and law."

The work cut out for women would be appalling did we not believe with James Russell Lowell that

"New occasions teach new duties; Time makes ancient good uncouth;
They must upward be and onward who would keep abreast of truth."

C. B.

THE CORSICANS OF TO-DAY.

PARIS, March 21, 1888.

PROSPER MÉRIMÉE wrote his best book, 'Colomba,' on his return from the Island of Corsica. When all his other works are forgotten, 'Colomba' will probably still be read. It was a sort of revelation. France hardly knew well the island which gave birth to Napoleon. 'Colomba' had and still has all the charm of a journey in a *terra incognita*. The historian of the Papacy, Gregorovius, has given an excellent account of Corsica, but, like Mérimée, he has been more seduced by the virtues of the Corsican race than shocked by its defects. Gregorovius is a man of imagination and of strong sympathies; he has treated the Corsicans in the same spirit as Lucretia Borgia.

I have before me a volume of letters on Corsica which were sent to a French paper by M. Paul Bourde, a travelling correspondent, who has the great merits of the modern school of writers. He is a sort of photographer, and does not pretend to any other merit than exactitude. It is rather curious to see that the same method rules now in all the fine arts. The motto of the modern painter is "to paint what he sees"; nature is really the only master. Our naturalists and impressionists wish to rob her of all she contains; they seem not to choose their subjects—they are, so to speak, chosen by them. No sculptor would dare, in our time, to model from his memory or his imagination; he must have before him a living object. The increasing importance of the press, the boundless curiosity of the public, has engendered a new class of journalists, who are also naturalists; they seem to hold no opinions, no doctrines; they go about the world and note everything. Their powers of vision are acute, their powers of judgment are but small; but they do not pretend to judge—the universe seems to them like a vast theatre crossed by fleeting forms; they are amused by the show and they wish to amuse us.

M. Paul Bourde is a little better than an "amuseur"; there is a little philosophy hidden in his descriptions. He has seen many countries and many men, he has described in graphic letters Cochin China, and Tonkin, and I know not what other countries. He was lately sent to Corsica, which had become the scene of curious disorders, and he formed his opinion on the spot as to the cause of these disorders. He is courageous and truthful, and, writing in a republican paper, he dares to say that if he has republished his letters, it is because "Corsica presents, in its acute form—that is to say, in the finest conditions for study—the example of an evil of which we are beginning to feel the first symptoms on the Continent. It is the interference of the Deputies in the ad-

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ministration." He dares to say that, on the Continent, "the evil is checked by our moral habits. The electoral interests offend the scruples of conscience. Nevertheless, the progress of the evil is shown by the difficulty with which certain taxes are collected, by the impunity assured to certain frauds, by the multiplication of nominations made through complacency. In Corsica, thanks to the conscience of the clan, the laws are but a name. One-half of the citizens evade them with the help of their representatives, and they become mere instruments of vexation against the other half. There is no law, no justice: the administrators are inert for fear of endangering their position; the administered are persuaded, by daily experience, that nothing is done except by favor."

Would you see, by an example, how far the Corsicans are imbued with the idea that everything is done by favor? A young man had a wooden leg; he could, of course, not become a soldier. When the time came for him, however, to appear before the Council of Revision which decides on exemptions from military service, he did not think himself safe till he had procured letters of recommendation to all the members of this Council, and carried these letters to them. M. Bourde thinks that we, who live on the Continent, are a little better, in this respect, than the Corsicans. How does he explain the fact that M. Wilson, the son-in-law of President Grévy, kept carefully 22,000 bundles of letters, coming from 22,000 different persons, who had applied to him for various favors? It is M. Wilson himself who reported this number, and he did not seem to understand the importance of this extraordinary revelation.

M. Bourde is severe on the Corsicans; he is severe, also, on the French. He thinks that we have not done enough for the island, that we have left it too much to itself, a prey to brigandage and the vendetta; that we might have improved a brave and energetic people, worthy of a better fortune.

If you start at six o'clock in the evening from Nice, you arrive at six o'clock in the morning at Bastia. A few hours separate two worlds; is it France, is it Italy? "You know, at once, by people's manners, that you are not in Italy; and, whatever you may have thought hitherto, you find yourself in presence of a new character. If you ask a passer-by for an address, he takes you politely to the very door; and if you make the gesture for putting your hand in your pocket so as to pay him for his complacency, however poor he may be, he will leave you with an angry air. The Corsicans are very proud—a sentiment unknown in Italy, where the lower classes beg with effrontery." M. Bourde tells us little about the race, in the ethnological sense. In Bastia and in the seaports, where the influence of Pisa and of Genoa was most felt, people have black hair; in the interior of the island he found many red-haired. The original type was probably red. He went from place to place, travelling leisurely, and trying to penetrate the Corsican soul. The social organization reminded him of the Roman patriciate. Fifteen or twenty families have their clients, and dispose of all the influence, as they dispose of all the votes, in the elections. Such a family has a few hundred votes, another has two or three thousand. For centuries there was no central power; the island belonged to independent and rival classes. Even now, a Corsican prides himself on the number of his cousins; the larger the family, the stronger it is. The French rule has not destroyed this feeling, "because," says M. Bourde, "it has not destroyed the needs which created it. We have not been able to inspire confidence enough in the equity of our functionaries, nor in the justice of our tribunals. The Corsicans have not renounced defending themselves; they remain associated in order to protect themselves, and also to help each other in order to obtain favors or to avoid the obligations of our society. A Corsican who does not belong to a clan seems, in the eyes of his compatriots, a despicable object; he is a barren branch of the tree."

Let us enter into the house and the family of one of these chieftains of a clan. His house is large and adorned in the Italian style: no comfort, no carpets, no rich furniture; immense rooms in which you can hold meetings; great archives, where all the family papers are carefully kept; a voluminous correspondence of Paoli, letters of various Bonapartes before their elevation. How is this great family influence maintained? By the voluntary sacrifices of all the brothers to one. "You see my house," said one of these heads of a family to M. Bourde. "We were four brothers; only one married. We thus avoided the division of our lands and the breaking up of our influence. One of my brothers takes care of the property. I, who am the eldest, have the political direction. I give my life and I may say my fortune to my clients, and my clients give me their votes; this is our secret." In old times these clients would have made war for their chieftains, in our day they have only to vote. When the tax-gatherer torments a peasant for his taxes, the taxee goes to his chief, who advances the money. The *padrone* is the director of the conscience: he distributes money, influence, pleasures; he governs in his little world, and spends as much ingenuity and diplomacy as a statesman. Is it to be wondered at that, with such a state of things, agriculture is still as it was described by Virgil? It is very much as it is in Sicily. If the great proprietors wished to make any changes, they would have to derange and to hurt all sorts of vested interests, and they would compromise their political influence.

Here is an example of the importance of a clan. In the month of August, 1886, a special jury was appointed for the condemnation of the lands over which was to be built a railroad from Casamorza to Fium'orbo:

"This jury had been chosen in the Council General by a majority presided over by M. de Casabianca, the chief of the clan which is now the most powerful; then a selection was made by a tribunal presided over by the father of M. de Casabianca; and the deliberations took place before M. de Casabianca, a lawyer chosen by the company. It was truly a clannish jury, and it judged according to the conscience of the clan: what is good for friends is legitimate. M. Benedetti was deprived of a vineyard of 16 ares 96 centiares, and Mlle. Virgitti of a vineyard of nearly the same extent—18 ares 90 centiares. M. Benedetti is an enemy of the clan. The jury allowed him 2,000 francs, which was, however, a perfectly reasonable price. But Mlle. Virgitti is a relative; she obtained 13,000 francs. MM. Astima were also relatives; they were paid 35,000 francs for 1 hectare 36 ares 70 centiares of the wild land (*maquis*). Still another relative got 45,000 francs for 90 ares 51 centiares of maquis land."

On the Continent such partiality would have been deemed monstrous, in Corsica it was simply looked upon as a proof of the power of the Casabiancas.

Every year the same spirit is shown in the councils of revision which decide on exemptions from the military service. The Corsicans have the same taste as the Italians for small Government offices, little as these offices may be paid. An official becomes what the Italians call a *mezzo-galantuomo*; he looks down upon the tillers of the soil. They have instinctively a great aversion to agriculture. Every year 15,000 Italian laborers, who all go under the name of Lucchese, though they do not all come from Lucca, cross to Bastia in the autumn, and go all over the island, where they do the heaviest agricultural work. The Corsicans do the easiest work. They gather the olives and the chestnuts. "The peasant families which can lay by anything are rare exceptions; people live from hand to mouth. Every village has a fine square where the inhabitants spend the best part of their lives in talking politics—that is to say, the rivalries of their clans. Most villages are divided into two camps, two parties. One of my friends who was for some time in Corsica in the capacity of a *garde général* of the forests, told me that one Sunday he saw in a village church all the men with guns in their hands. The two camps occupied the two opposite sides; at the moment of the elevation of the Host, as all the men had to kneel, he heard the click of all the guns (which were loaded), lest the kneeling posture might become an occasion for firing."

M. Bourde has reckoned the cost to France of this singular island. He concludes that since the beginning of the century Corsica has cost France one milliard of francs. The fiscal laws are constantly evaded; the public works are all paid for out of the national treasury. For all that, France is not ready to abandon Corsica, feeling that the race which inhabits it is capable of progress. The Corsican soldiers are among the best in the French Army; and, besides, did not Corsica give us Napoleon? As his life is an indissoluble part of our history, his birthplace has become an indissoluble part of our country.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may have been mentioned in your columns, but, as I have not noticed the statement of the fact, I will call attention to it, that a pamphlet (written, I was told, by a late Governor of South Carolina, but published without the author's name being embodied), bearing the following title-page, was issued by Parry, Cooke & Co., Charleston, S. C., 1878: 'The Code of Honor; its Rationale and Uses, by the tests of Common Sense and Good Morals, with the effects of its Preventive Remedies.' At the close are given "Rules for the Government of Principals and Seconds in Personal Difficulties."

I was told about the pamphlet by a gentleman of the *ancien régime* of the Sea Islands, who married the only child of a once wealthy planter of the same region. He also told me that on his wedding day he received, as a present from his father in-law, a case of duelling pistols with a copy of this pamphlet on the Code.

The author sets forth as a fact that civilization has come through wars, and that "the great natural right of self-preservation is as full in individuals as in public bodies"; and asserts that

"when the cause is just, and the course of the duel is governed by humanity in vindication of justice, or for a rational defence of honor, it stands upon the principles of nature and the principles of Christianity, precisely as public war. And now the leading and most rancorous enemies to the Code of Honor are the materialistic Puritan sceptics of this country. Under the name and cloak of Christians they dethrone the Godhead of Christ, ignore the atonement, and dispense with faith. . . . In the arrogance of intense self-sufficiency they trample

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under foot, as they choose, both the Bible and the Constitution. And they have no respect for the immemorial usages of persons of gentle manners and good breeding. . . . Their individual feelings are little vulnerable, and character and rights, being both venial and venal, require no risky defence. . . . So long as radical levelling does not reduce all to the semi-savage state of the social hog—so long as the gentleman is not eliminated from existence—until the advent of the millennium, the Code of Honor will be used."

As to anti-duelling laws, which abridge the rights of juries to investigate the facts and the animus of homicides resulting from duels, he says:

"They have been transplanted from the pernicious hotbed of Puritan scepticism, whose arrogant and intermeddling 'higher law,' humanitarian aggression has caused the slaughter of thousands of American citizens, and whose levelling materialism has taken profitable shape in systematic plundering of their victims under form of law. For fifty years all this class have raged against the Code of Honor. . . . They have shown their mortal hatred of the Code of Honor and their fear of the responsibility it enforces."

That "the Bible" and "the principles of Christianity" should be brought forward to support the conservation of slavery, war, and the duel, is not surprising, seeing that a canon of the Anglican Church said, when some people hurrahed for Gladstone, "You might as well hurrah for the devil as for Gladstone," and that, as it is said, a Conservative party cry in England was "Beer and the Bible." But there is a new South which would not sympathize with the English canon in perpetuating the union of Church and State, which strives to suppress intoxicants, and which frowns on the duel.—Yours, H. J. S.

MONTREUX, SWITZERLAND, March 13, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 22, Mr. James Wood Pogue, writing from Nashville, Tennessee, under the above heading, says: "As I am distinctly a Southerner and personally acquainted with several gentlemen who have recently figured in desperate 'affairs of honor, it may be pardoned if I submit a concise opinion on the subject."

Now, if the phrase "affair of honor" means anything, it means a regularly arranged duel. But, from the illustration employed by Mr. Pogue, it is plain that he is talking, not of duels, which are about as completely out of date in the South as in the North, but of street-fights, which rarely have about them even that semblance of "honor," or fairness, which was supposed to be the recommendation of the duel. I do not know where Mr. Pogue has made the acquaintance of the "gentlemen who have recently figured in desperate affairs of honor," as there has been neither duel nor street-fight between gentlemen in Nashville within nine or ten years. The case of Gen. Zolicoffer, which he uses as a text, belongs to ancient history, having occurred between thirty and forty years ago. Moreover, his account of it is wholly inaccurate, and there was no such display of "chivalry" as he supposes.

The writer is a native of Tennessee, who knows that Mr. Pogue's loose expressions will convey to Northern readers a most unjust impression as to the peaceful conduct and regard for law of the community in which he lives—and who believes that in these particulars it will bear comparison with almost any community, North or South. He therefore begs space for this correction. B.

SPRING HILL, TENN., March 25, 1888.

PRACTICAL POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An article in the *New Princeton Review* with the above heading furnishes a pretext for another blow at the nail which cannot get itself driven. The sum of that article is that our platforms are mere generalities, to which the parties pay no attention, while they ought to be so definite as to be the standard of parties, and committees of the Legislature should see that they are put in practice; that our representatives are wholly impersonal to their constituents, who vote for mere names, without knowing anything about them, what they have done, or what they will do, and that every representative ought to give a public account of himself, either orally at district meetings or through the press; and, lastly, that our representative bodies are too large, that debate in Congress or the State Legislatures is impossible, while the conventions "are mere panicky hordes, the prey of intrigues and surprises, in which discussion is impossible, and whose decisions cannot be forecast." The remedy in this last particular is not quite so clearly set forth.

The root of all the difficulties thus pointed out seems to me to lie in the want of personality in our politics, and of this again in the exclusion of the executive branch from all share in the public guidance of legislation. If the Cabinet officers had seats and voices in Congress—and the same is just as true of State officers in the Legislatures, and city officers in the councils—whatever else might be the effect, it could not fail to work a change in these respects. In the first place, there would be no need of a platform. Supposing the parties to retain distinguishing names, even as unmeaning as Republicans and Democrats, they would soon find that their way to success would depend upon following leaders, and leaving to those leaders to formulate policies. The conflict of debate would soon take care that those leaders were strong men, probably the strongest of the party. The leaders, watching the current of opinion in, and still more outside of, Congress, would put prominent questions into shape, and, having the guidance of business in the houses, would see that they were taken up in order and in good season to be debated publicly, instead of disappearing in the inextricable confusion of thousands of bills in separate and secret committees.

If this was the effect upon business, it would be quite as great upon the representatives. The reason why these are unknown ciphers to their constituents is, that their work is so indefinite, so purposeless, and so secret. Members of Congress disappear at once in committees. Not one in ten of them knows how or why anything is done, and those who do know are by no means anxious to tell. How can a member make report of such things to his constituents? He might as well try to explain the changes of figures in a kaleidoscope. But if measures were taken up in order, in full Congress, under the guidance of leaders, the speeches and the votes of the member would establish his political position, while he would have a plenty to talk about to his constituents in explaining to them what would have already excited their interest in the papers.

Not less would be the effect on the representative bodies. Whereas now, in Congress, the only way to prevent everybody from talking is to allow nobody to talk, then, in the interest of their own success, parties would be compelled to put forward their strongest speakers. The English Parliament is twice as numerous as our House of Representatives, yet there is no difficulty in conducting sustained debate, though they have had to resort to the "closure," or our "previous question," to get business done. As for conventions, their function could hardly fail to be considerably diminished. As it is now, the force of public opinion is so strong as to compel them, in a wonderful degree, to limit their nominations to men of at least respectable character, though, politically speaking, the entire absence of personality leaves the matter to be settled by chance or intrigue. If the people were sufficiently acquainted with their public men to have and to manifest decided preferences, the convention would have its work so far cut out as not to be in much danger of going astray. G. B.

BOSTON, March 31, 1888.

COLLEGE ADMISSION BY CERTIFICATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Two examples have recently come to my knowledge which seem to have a bearing on the subject of "Admission by Certificates," written upon in your last issue.

The first illustrates the difficulty of enforcing a uniform standard of excellence, even when all students have been tested by the same examination papers. An instructor in Harvard lately took a position in another institution of high rank. One of his first duties was to examine some written exercises. Only those students who obtained 50 per cent. passed. He marked these papers after the Harvard standard, and found, in round figures, that one-third had passed, and a second third, having obtained between 40 and 50 per cent., were conditioned. Distrustful of the result, he consulted a colleague, and learned that he had expected too great accuracy, and that, marked after the customary standard, two-thirds should have been wholly successful. How much more are the obstacles in the way of a uniform standard multiplied when the number of privileged schools is increased, and especially when each sets its own tests of the student's proficiency.

The second incident was as follows: A young lady wishing to study solid geometry in connection with the "Study at Home Society," wrote that she had passed the entrance examinations of one of the three colleges mentioned, and was consequently excused from the review of plane geometry, which, according to custom, would have been required of her. Her work proved below the usual standard. Inquiries were made, and it was learned that she had passed the college examinations of an "approved" private school, privileged to send its students "on certificates" to that college. Is it fair to infer that these colleges are becoming responsible for a false standard of scholarship in girls' preparatory schools?

An extension of the plan initiated by Harvard and adopted by Vassar, of holding local examinations, would have all the advantages of the certificate system and none of its faults. By this well-known method, the questions are prepared and the answers examined by the college officials. A beneficial relation is established with the preparatory schools, and the student is saved the expense of a long journey. The authority of the faculty is delegated to one of its members, or, perhaps, to a graduate, only so far as to insure the fairness of the examination. The entire responsibility for the admission or rejection of a candidate lies with that person who, presumably, has the highest interests of the college most at heart, its President.

"Long experience has already taught male colleges the necessity, if they would be true to

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their ideal, of insisting upon thorough preparation for their work. We do not see how female colleges can be exempt from this necessity, if they are to give young women similar advantages. Women, they say, jump to conclusions, but can they jump over grammars, spelling-books, arithmetics, and geometries, and begin, on an equal footing with our less-gifted sex, the study of the higher branches of literature and science?" (L. Clarke Seelye, Inaugural Address, pp. 13-14.)

Very respectfully, H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 30, 1888.

A VINDICATION OF DR. VON HOLST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letters of "N. Z." in your issue of March 15 (p. 216), and of "G. B." in your last number (p. 258), have suggested the question whether those writers and some other writers have fairly criticised Prof. von Holst. The article to which "N. Z." refers lies before me in the earlier form of an address before the University of Freiburg. On page 16 is found the following passage: "Staat und Volk sind aber nicht von einander zu trennende Begriffe, und die Senatoren haben daher, obwohl sie nicht von dem Volke, sondern von den Legislaturen gewählt werden, in dem Empfinden der Gesammtbevölkerung weit mehr als die Gesammtheit der Repraesentanten den Charakter von Vertretern des Volkes." Will "N. Z." or any other thoughtful man deny that the people of a State as a whole recognize the Senators as their representatives rather than the Congressional delegation of the State, taken as a whole? If a great petition were forwarded from a State coming from every quarter of it, would it probably be presented by the delegation or by a Senator? Again, my own experience and belief is, that people who know who are the Mayor of their city and the Governor of their State can also mention both their Senators, and are quite unable to give the names of all their Congressmen. On the veto power and the initiative of legislation, Prof. von Holst may have laid himself open to attack; but foreign writers have no monopoly of heterodox opinions on those or any other points of constitutional law. It is one thing to disagree with a critic of our institutions, and another to say that his different opinion proves his want of acquaintance with his subject.

The charge made by "N. Z." is one of ignorance; "G. B." adds a charge of partisanship. "Dr. von Holst," says he, "is no friend of republican or parliamentary government, as shown not merely in his writings, but by the fact . . . that, after living some time in the country, he has preferred to . . . make his home in Germany." Several such criticisms have at various times come to my notice, and not one has ever been proved either from the writings or the life of the eminent German writer. A very intelligent young scholar remarked to me recently that the 'Constitutional History' seemed based on a comparison of twelve or fifteen of the best general works. I was able to assure him, from personal knowledge, that it was based on a study of many hundreds of volumes, including whole sets of *Congressional Globes*. On the other hand, I have more than once heard the criticism that he placed too much dependence on untrustworthy writers; the only specific instances furnished were John Quincy Adams's memoirs, which did not appear till the earlier part of the work was finished; and Giddings's works, against which Von Holst himself repeatedly warns his readers. If he understands our institutions imperfectly, it is because a long residence here and repeated visits, made for the purpose of investigation, are not sufficient; and any scholar who reads carefully his new 'Constitutional Law' must admit that it seems permeated with a critical and friendly understanding of the spirit of our institutions, and that the errors in it are extremely few.

The essential unfairness of assertions that Prof. von Holst is unfriendly to our institutions lies in the fact that in Germany he stands as their defender. The 'Constitutional History' began in a study of the workings of universal suffrage, upon which he entered at the instance of some Bremen gentlemen, who wished information when the German Confederation was founded. The first volume, and indeed the whole history, has been written for the enlightenment of the German public. With Friedrich Kapp, the lamented correspondent of the *Nation*, Von Holst has persistently called the attention of his countrymen to the greatness and the success of the American Union; he has constantly attempted to correct misapprehensions and misjudgments in regard to our Government.

One American writer has gone so far as to hint that a Prussian travelling stipend has bought his pen to use it in detraction of the United States—perhaps of free institutions; and "G. B." finds something portentous in his return to his native country. Germans themselves know that as a writer, a public speaker, and a legislator (he has been a member of the upper house of the Baden Legislature), he has set his face against the tendencies to absolutism in Germany. There is plenty of biting criticism of individual Americans in his works, and often specific national characteristics are excoriated; but I have found in them a thoughtful appreciation of American character and of republican government. The American university which twice called him to its chair of history, seems to have had no doubts on that score, and those persons who have worked in his library and talked with him about American history, will agree that they have found a very keen admiration for the American Republic. I commend to "N. Z." and to "G. B." these closing words of Von Holst's 'Constitutional Law': "No people of ancient or modern times has shown a greater capacity for founding a state." A. B. H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 31, 1888.

DARED AND *DURST*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A reviewer, in your issue of the 16th ultimo, combines quotation and implied criticism, in the words "no colonial barrister *dared* (*sic*) defend the accused," etc. As he can hardly prefer, instead of *dared*, *durst*, a form rapidly going out of use, it must be supposed that, in his opinion, good English imperatively requires "*dared* to defend."* The following passages will serve at once to throw light on the approximate age of expressions like *dared defend*, and to suggest whether they are liable to censure. As regards the earliest of them, it is observable that we find "She *dar'd to* brook Neptunus' haughty pride," in the page next to that in which it occurs.

"Who *dar'd*, for Edward's sake, *cut* through the seas." Robert Greene (died 1592), *Dramatic Works* (ed. 1831), Vol. I., p. 159.

"They *dared* not *doe* as others did." Jeremiah Burroughs, *Sions Joy* (1641), p. 26.

"Yet *dar'd* she not *discover* to him the true cause of them." William Browne, Trans. of *Polexander* (1647), Vol. I., p. 229.

"No man *dared* afterwards, for the sake of a reward, *expose* himself to the fury of the people." Dr. Johnson (1743), *Debates in Parliament* (ed. 1787), Vol. II., p. 441.

"Libanius and the rest . . . *dared* not so much as *mutter* the least suspicion of this nature." Bp. Warburton, *Julian* (1750), in *Works* (ed. 1811), Vol. VIII., p. 228.

"Yet none *dared vent* their indignation." Goldsmith, *History of England* (1771), Vol. II., p. 337.

"My advice, however salutary and necessary, as it seemed to me, was such as I *dared* not *have given* [*correctly*, should not have dared give] to a poet of less diffidence than he." William Cowper, *Letter to Mrs. Bodham*, Nov. 21, 1790.

"Though I *dared warrant* for the pleasantness of the journey on the whole," etc. Coleridge (1809), *The Friend* (ed. 1818), Vol. I., p. 23.

"They *dared* not openly *inculcate* the old faith." Southey, *Life of Wesley* (1820), Vol. I., p. 316.

"Cowper said, forty or fifty years ago, that he *dared* not *name* John Bunyan in his verse, for fear of moving a sneer." Lord Macaulay, *Essay on Bunyan* (1831), concluding paragraph.

"I *dared* not *hazard* the opinion," etc. W. S. Landor, *Pericles and Aspasia* (1836), CXXXV.

"She *dared* not *commit*," etc.; "I *dared* not *tell* why." Cardinal Newman, *Apologia pro Vita Sua* (1864), pp. 196, 288.

From the pages of Coleridge, Southey, Cardinal Newman, and other authorities of the first rank, not to speak of writers of inferior note, I might, if it were necessary, add largely to these quotations.

According to Dr. Latham, as cited by Dr. Worcester: "We can [*sic*] perhaps say, 'I *dared venture* on the expedition.'"

Dr. Johnson, and also Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham, as editors of his Dictionary, do not recognize the preterit *dared;* nor does the lexicographer Dr. Richardson. Dr. Webster's editors insert it; but Dr. Webster himself knew nothing of it, and the Dictionary of Dr. Worcester, for all the improvements that it has undergone since his death, has still to record its existence.

As to Grammars, that of Dr. Richard Morris (ed. 1873), and that of Dr. William Smith and Mr. T. D. Hall, which enjoys great vogue in England, are, like a host of their predecessors, unacquainted with it. Mr. C. P. Mason, in the twenty-fifth edition of his very popular *English Grammar* (1881), imparts the information, respecting *dare*, that "The past tense now in use is 'I durst.'"

Can it be, then, that Shakespeare and Milton, with countless other writers of the last three centuries, have been deemed insufficient to sanction *dared* as the equivalent of the obsolescent preterit *durst?* Certainly not; the truth being simply, that, from want of critical familiarity with our literature, the above-named professed guides to our language, Dr. Webster's editors excepted, were unaware of its reputable employment.

Durst, as a past participle, escaped Dr. Webster; but his editors supplied it, and yet struck it out in their edition of 1880. One would like to know why. In my *Modern English* (1873), p. 229, I ask: "Among what barbarians is 'I have not *durst* do it' good English?" Though this question may still be put, I now know, though, fifteen years ago, I was ignorant, that *durst* was a participle in former times, and preceded *dared*. I find it used by Alexander Barclay (1508), Dr. Samuel Collins (1617), Henry Earl of Monmouth (1650), Sir Richard Baker (1654), and Samuel Pepys (1665). It is unrecognized by Dr. Richard Morris and the other grammarians that I have spoken of, and by dictionary-wrights generally.

Referring to Tarlton's *Newes out of Purgatorie* (about 1590), Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant says, with his ordinary misplaced positiveness: "The verb *dare* now first forms a Past Partici-

* The *sic* was intended for the sentiment, not the syntax; the fact being that the author of the book under review had himself put "dared" in italics. But we are nothing loath to have elicited Dr. Hall's exposition of an interesting grammatical point.—ED. NATION.

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ple; *having dared to look.*" *The New English* (1886), Vol. II., p. 13. Though he has reported at length on the language of Alexander Barclay, he has failed to observe, in his best-known work, the passage: "They sholde nat haue *durst* the peoples vyce to blame." *The Ship of Fools* (ed. 1874), Vol. I., p. 207.

At variance with recent usage, phrases like "I *durst to* do it" were long current. Citations in proof of this assertion must, however, be forborne. They have been taken from thirteen authors, beginning with Dr. Nicholas Harpsfield (about 1555), and ending with De Foe (1717).—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 11, 1888.

P. S.—"Chrysostomus *dared* say that our lady was now and then taken with a little vainglory." Tyndale, *Answer to Sir Thomas More's Dialogue* (ed. 1850), p. 207. The editor of this reprint, the Rev. Henry Walter, B.D., F.R.S., had access to a copy, preserved at Cambridge, of what he thinks is "not unlikely to have been [*sic*] the first edition" of the work: "the type is foreign, but is not Hans Luft's." But neither in that edition, nor in Day's somewhat modernized reproduction of it (1573), on a collation of which two the text of the *Answer*, where just quoted, is professedly based, is there Mr. Walter's "dared." Another old copy of the *Answer*, belonging to the British Museum, was, on the faith of the printed Catalogue, probably the production of a London press, and was issued in the year 1530. That copy, as my obliging friend Dr. Charles Gross informs me, has, instead of what is given above: "Chrisostimus *dare* saye, that our lady was now & then taken wyth a litle vayne glorie." This, in every the minutest particular, is the reading in the Cambridge copy, as the Rev. Professor Skeat, who kindly consulted it at my request, enables me to state. And not only in his *Answer*, but in his translation of I. *Cor.*, VI., 1, Tyndale has *dare* as the third person singular. That Mr. Oliphant, accepting as trustworthy the aforesaid sophisticated sentence, credits him with the use of *dared*, is a serious error. See his *New English*, Vol. I., p. 430.

AN AMERICAN SCHOLAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is not the wording of your note in the *Nation* on March 15 on Dr. Seligman's 'Two Chapters on the Mediæval Guilds of England' unfortunate in giving the impression that Dr. Gross, upon whose thesis Seligman's work is so largely based, is a German? Of course the initiated know that he is a good American. But are we already so rich in rising scholars that we ought to neglect to claim one whose work does such honor to our young scholarship?

Yours respectfully,

ARTHUR G. CANFIELD.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, LAWRENCE, March 28.

Notes.

Two of the ten volumes of the 'Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time,' compiled and edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and Ellen Mackay Hutchinson, and published by subscription by Charles L. Webster & Co., are now ready, and the rest are expected to follow monthly. The work is illustrated with steel engravings and woodcuts.

The third and last volume of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'History of the Inquisition' will be published directly by Harper & Bros., along with 'France and the Navy of the Confederate States: an International Episode,' by Mr. John Bigelow; and 'A Brother to Dragons, and Other Old-Time Tales,' by Amélie Rives.

A welcome announcement is the first volume (of two) of the 'Life and Letters of George P. Marsh,' by Mrs. Caroline C. Marsh, to be published by the Scribners. They have also nearly ready the second and final volume of Thomas Stevens's 'Around the World on a Bicycle'; 'Befo' de War,' poems by A. C. Gordon and Thomas Nelson Page; 'The Spell of Ashtaroth,' by Osborne Duffield; and a volume of sermons, 'Eternal Atonement,' by the late Dr. Roswell Hitchcock.

Those who possess Prof. Geo. P. Fisher's 'History of the Christian Church' will desire to procure for insertion in the appendix to that work a thin pamphlet (paged 670*a*–670*aa*) of 'Notes on the Literature of Church History' (Scribners).

Henry Holt & Co. issue shortly 'A Castle in the Air,' by Gen. Hugh Ewing.

'Woffington: A Tribute to the Actress and the Woman,' by Augustin Daly, will be a sumptuous volume in two styles, with sixteen full-page illustrations, sold in a limited edition by J. W. Bouton, 1152 Broadway.

Worthington Co. announce 'Yankee Girls in Zululand,' by Louise V. Sheldon, with numerous illustrations.

Thomas Whittaker has in press 'The Mental Characteristics of the Lord Jesus Christ,' by the Rev. H. N. Bernard; and 'The Gospels of Yesterday,' by Robert A. Watson.

The tracts known in Boston as 'The Old South Leaflets,' accompaniments of the annual historical lectures given at the Old South Meeting-house, have been found to meet a need, and are to be succeeded by a general series for the use of schools, colleges, clubs, and classes. These "will be largely reproductions of important original political and historical papers," with helpful notes. D. C. Heath & Co. will be the publishers.

The house of Hoepli, in Milan, has in hand for the present year not only the royal edition of the 'Divine Comedy,' with the inedited commentary of Stefano Talice, as we have already mentioned, but also the continuation of the 'Corpus Scriptorum Ecclesiasticorum Latinorum' at the minimum rate of three volumes annually; the 'Annali d'Italia dal 1861 ai nostri giorni,' edited by the director of the Royal Library at Brera in continuation of the 'Annali' of Muratori and Coppi; the second volume of 'La Storia degli Israeliti,' from the election of Saul to the fall of Jerusalem, by David Castelli; the second and third volumes of Cesare Luigi Gasca's 'Del Codice Ferroviario'; and 'L'Arte Italiana,' a collection of 150 plates, after mostly inedited works by classical Italian artists, edited by Prof. A. Melani.

Roberts Bros., Boston, send us, in a very handsome edition, a translation of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel till the Time of King David.' The type is large and clear, and the University Press may be trusted for the accuracy of the proof-reading.

We receive from Scribner & Welford the seventh edition of Dean Alford's 'The Queen's English,' in the neat form of "Bohn's Select Library." To be mentioned with it is the "Boudoir Edition" of 'Don't' (Appletons), so far as the chapter on speech is concerned; as well as the second edition of Robert Luce's 'Writing for the Press' (Boston: *Writer* Publishing Co.), and 'Slips of Tongue and Pen,' by J. H. Long (Appletons). All these authors attempt more or less to make the English language what they think it ought to be, logically, analogically, and to suit their personal preferences. Mr. Long thus deals with settled usage (p. 33): 'Nobody's else book' is said to be [by whom?] preferable to 'Nobody else's book.' Custom has, however, firmly established the latter form. But it is better [why?] to employ some other expression, *e. g.*, 'The book of no one else,' 'No other person's book.'"

Sir Joshua Reynolds's 'Seven Discourses on Art,' Fox's 'History of the Early Part of the Reign of James II.,' another instalment of Pepys's 'Diary' (1667-68), and 'London in 1731,' by Don Manoel Gonzales, are the newest issues in "Cassell's National Library."

Belford, Clarke & Co. have put together in a convenient volume, with an index, the United States tariff and free list of the Act of March 3, 1883; the Hawaiian Reciprocity Treaty; and parts of the Navigation and Oleomargarine Acts.

The disease consumption, however viewed, is always of public interest. As Dr. Bowditch determined for Massachusetts, and Dr. Buchanan for parts of England, the comparative degree of wetness in the soil was a fair measure of the proportion of consumption among the residents thereon. Dr. Pepper of Philadelphia attempted an investigation of the distribution of the same disease for the State of Pennsylvania, and presented his data and certain conclusions to the Climatological Association as a contribution to the climatological study of the disease. His inquiries were sent to 650 of the 5,000 physicians distributed through sixty-seven counties, and replies were received from 120 correspondents in forty-seven counties. The general deductions from the answers are that the localities having high mortality from consumption are those of little elevation and large annual rainfall, and that the hemlock regions, which correspond quite closely with the favorable climatic regions, have the greatest immunity. A very small proportion of the respondents recognize the influence of special local causes for this disease, such as the greater dampness of one house than another. The hereditary nature of the disease is almost unanimously admitted, while its infectious quality is receiving more general recognition. In race the negroes seem the most liable, and Jews the most exempt, but there are many other factors than those of nationality to be taken into account. Dr. Pepper regards his paper "as the first crude and imperfect result of an investigation which he hopes to be able to continue to a much greater degree of completeness." The address is accompanied with elaborate maps, charts, and tables, and is published very satisfactorily by the Appletons.

The editor of the Tauchnitz collection, in his choice of American books, has always followed the English taste, and he rarely reprints an American book until after it has approved itself in London. Hence he has only now decided to include in the series Gen. Wallace's 'Ben Hur.' But Mr. Marion Crawford's books appear in Leipzig almost as soon as they are issued in New York and London; the latest to figure on Baron Tauchnitz's catalogue being 'Paul Patoff' and 'Marzio's Crucifix.' We may note, also, that French translations of 'Marzio's Crucifix' and (oddly enough) of 'An American Politician' have been published in Paris.

Of the making of books about the stage there is no end in Paris; and not a few of these are annuals. The latest of these series is one of the prettiest, 'Paris sur Scène,' by M. Guy de Saint-Môr (Paris: Piaget; New York: F. W. Christern). It contains a gossiping account of the chief plays acted in Paris in the season 1886-7, adorned with abundant illustra-

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tions—ingenious and amusing little process cuts not unlike those in M. Daudet's 'Tartarin.' Some of the thumb-nail sketches of actors are singularly successful in attaining a likeness—for example, that of M. Coquelin *cadet*. The chief comment made by a New York playgoer who may turn these pleasant pages, will be to the effect that very few of the plays which are produced in Paris are ever reproduced in New York.

The 'Soixante Ans de Souvenirs' of M. Ernest Legouvé has been republished in four 18mo volumes (Paris: Hetzel; Boston: Schoenhof), each of the large octavos of the original edition making two volumes of that now issued. These literary and theatrical recollections of the veteran author, who came in contact, in one way or another, with so many of the most interesting personages of the present century, are brought down only to 1876. The years after that date, and even, as the author tells us, those preceding it, which contain more personal and intimate details, form the framework for other recollections already begun, but not with any intention of present publication. As this clever and charming writer is never indiscreet, and especially never ill-natured in his revelations, those who care to penetrate into the literary life of France will regret that he should have thought it necessary to delay giving anything to the world upon a subject that has already done so much honor to his literary generosity.

Alphonse Lemerre, the publisher of poets, has been for some time issuing in weekly numbers an 'Anthologie des poètes français du XIXe. siècle,' of which the second volume (1818-1841) is just completed. If those who share the very general belief outside of France that there is no contemporary French poetry, should turn over the leaves of these two substantial volumes, they would be surprised at the number of poets represented there, and at the poetic and artistic value of their work; and perhaps they might also be convinced that much real and very charming poetry has been written in France by poets still almost young, as well as by those belonging to the great poetic generation now passing away.

The collection of documents concerning Jacques Cartier gathered by F. Joüon des Longrais, and lately published at Paris under the title 'Jacques Cartier: Documents nouveaux,' affords material for more definite information relative to the career of the explorer than has hitherto been current. The date of his birth is shown to be 1491 instead of 1494, and his death, about which there was no information, is found to have occurred September 1, 1557. Two letters by Jacques Nouel de Saint-Malo concerning the Canadian discoveries are reproduced, and confirm the generally accepted idea, that the Bretons, particularly the "Malouins," were fishing for cod off the coast of Newfoundland in the early part of the sixteenth century.

L. Kreichauf, Elmira, N. Y., will issue in the latter part of this month the first number of his *Quarterly Bibliography of American and English Literature*, covering the first three months of 1888.

The *Publishers' Weekly* for January 21 is a "Copyright Number," containing documents of much historic importance relating to the present movement for international copyright in this country, including authors and publishers. These are followed by publishers' lists of American copyright books, with an authors' index; but here only approximate completeness is arrived at.

An interesting *aperçu* of a MS. orderly book of Sullivan's campaign against the Six Nations in 1779 is given in the Cornell University *Library Bulletin* for January. At the end of the *Bulletin*, Mr. F. H. Hodder furnishes useful references on municipal government in the United States.

In the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for January, Dr. C. J. Stillé develops at some length, but without adding much to it, Bancroft's summary mention of the Comte de Broglie's ambition and proposal to be made stadtholder of the American colonies during their struggle for independence. He supplements Kapp's revelations in his 'Life of Kalb' with documents drawn from a recent publication to the French Government, 'Participation de la France à l'établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique.' An etched portrait of Michael Hillegas, the first Treasurer of the United States, is prefixed to this number of the *Magazine*. His name is even less known to the present generation than is the Comte de Broglie's mad scheme.

The *Botanical Gazette*, published at Crawfordsville, Ind., has its tribute to pay to the late Asa Gray in its March issue.

Prof. George H. Cook's annual report for the Geological Survey of New Jersey tells of the virtual completion of the great Atlas of that State, the pioneer of its kind. The forestry of the northern sheets is still to be indicated. A cadastral and economic survey is the next desideratum. The mapping of the State has cost about one and one-twelfth cents per acre. A relief map of New Jersey on a scale of five miles to an inch has been made by the Survey, to exhibit drainage and sources of water supply. A general map of the entire State on the same scale accompanies this report.

The calendar of the University of Michigan for 1887–'88, just issued, brings gratifying evidence of the steady growth of that institution. With the exception of that of medicine and surgery, every department shows an increase of attendance compared with last year, and the total number of students, 1,667, is larger by nearly one hundred than ever before in the history of the University. As has been usual in recent years, about one-half of the students are residents of Michigan. Seventy-two names are credited to Canada and other countries outside of the United States. There are 62,398 volumes in the libraries, besides pamphlets and maps. The list of members of faculties and other officers contains ninety-nine names, but since the opening of the year two professors have been taken away by death—Dr. A. B. Palmer, who for more than thirty years was prominent in the medical faculty, and Dr. B. W. Cheever, professor of metallurgy. The chair of pedagogy, made vacant in February by the resignation of Professor W. H. Payne, has been filled by the appointment of ex-President B. A. Hinsdale of Hiram College.

There is a noticeable development of summer schools at Harvard, those advertised for the coming season covering Botany, Chemistry, French, German, Geology, History, Physics, Physical Training, and Topography. Notice of intention to join must be given by June 15. The Secretary of the University will furnish particulars.

—There are passages in Shakspere where commentators find either no sense, or a sense at war with the context. Yet in some of these passages, by changing a single word, we secure significance, and one in keeping with the surroundings. But judicious critics less and less venture on conjectural emendations, however plausible. If, however, the sense-making word an emendator would like to introduce is discovered to have been actually employed, in some work near Shakspere's era, as a typographical correction of a word which had been misprinted identically with the non-significant word in Shakspere, the critic who should correct the great dramatist as one of his contemporaries was in fact corrected, would not fear the charge of tampering with the text. Speculators on Shaksperian corruptions are thankful for every new hope, even the faintest, of textual correction. Resolved to do his utmost for them, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has just printed in their behalf a 'Dictionary of Misprints.' This work, which is a list of more than two thousand words that he finds misprinted in books issued in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, is a mere instalment of what he hopes to expand into something more voluminous. Each wrong word in the alphabetical array is followed in the same line by the right word as Mr. Phillipps has extracted it from tables of errata. The comments of the compiler suggest to verbal critics the application of his vocabulary of errors to the elucidation of truth. In the passage, "O, then we bring forth weeds, when our quick minds lie still," the word "minds" is a conjectural emendation of Warburton's which Grant White says that "he adopts with hesitation." The word "winds" stood instead of it in all early editions. Other emendators have proposed "wints," meaning "two furrows ploughed by the horses going to and fro to the end of a field and back again." Were White alive, he would adduce the Dictionary of Phillipps as thickening other proofs that do demonstrate thinly, for in that work we find "wind" as an actual misprint for mind in an ancient author. Thus Warburton's conjecture has authority. Seldom has refuse been turned to so good use as by this Dictionary. We are reminded of the French company who bought for a song the exhausted silver mines at Laurion, and, thanks to modern processes of smelting and reducing, turned out from the refuse slag more precious metal than the old Athenian miners had been able to extract from virgin ores. Well said *Autolycus:* "Every lane's end, every shop, church, session, hanging, yields a careful man work."

—The Cambridge University Press has just issued Mr. Charles M. Doughty's 'Travels in Arabia Deserta,' from 1876 to 1878, a book which has been ten years in preparation, and in which the author has had the assistance of such scholars as Renan, Sachau, Wright, and others. Mr. Doughty had prepared himself for his journey by a long residence at Damascus, and a wandering in Petræa in 1875. He never for a moment concealed his English nationality or his Christian faith, preferring, with a curious stubbornness, to die rather than allow it to be supposed for a moment that he belonged to the Mohammedan religion. Perhaps, after all, his concealing nothing and his always speaking the truth were his greatest safeguards. He started from Damascus with the pilgrims to Mecca, then lived entirely among the Bedouins, passed a long time in captivity near Medina, and several times narrowly escaped death. He discovered and copied many interesting inscriptions, compiled a vocabulary of the Nejd dialect, made many additions to our knowledge of the geography and geology of Arabia, and has rendered far more precise our notions of the Arabs in pre-Islamic times. His book, which is in two thick octavo volumes, with maps and illustrations, is written in a style which at first seems barbarous and affected, but which is soon seen to be a personal peculiarity of the traveller, coming partly from his hermit life in the East. His studies of English apparently stopped with the Elizabethan period and the

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authorized version of the Bible, but they have given him a style eminently suited to his subject-matter. The book can be opened anywhere and read without weariness—a worthy companion to the 'Arabian Nights.'

—Concerning the merits of Cook's translation of Sievers's 'Anglo-Saxon Grammar,' *first* edition, we have already spoken. Prof. Cook, an indefatigable laborer in this domain, follows closely in the footsteps of his master. He has just favored us with a translation of the *second* edition of Sievers (Boston: Ginn & Co.). The initiated know that the translation is emphatically a labor of love, of devotion to sound scholarship, costing the translator no small sacrifice. The least that we can do in turn is to hasten to say that the work is well done and well worth the doing. By its aid our teachers and students of Anglo-Saxon will be fully abreast of the times, so far as that may be said of any progressive branch of science. We believe that Sievers's Grammar in its present shape (German and English) will remain now the universal handbook for many years to come. Increasing knowledge may add a point here, modify a statement there; but the general principles and rules will remain intact. At only one point do we detect the possibility of a general change—namely, Bugge's recent attempt (*Beiträge* xii, 399–430; xiii, 167–187, 311–339) to apply Verner's rule to initial consonants. Yet Bugge's views, even if accepted, would only modify our conceptions of certain stems and etymologies; they would scarcely enter, as *eclipsis* does in Keltic philology, into the domain of formal grammar. Moreover, Bugge's investigation has not yet got out of the region of grammatical speculation. Usually a translator contents himself with reproducing his original; but Prof. Cook is one who leaves his original better than he finds it. His indexes are much superior to those of the German text. We regret that his paragraphing could not be made to correspond in every case to the German, and that he has felt obliged to condense certain minor details. We should have preferred Sievers pure and simple. But doubtless these departures from the original were occasioned by practical and personal considerations which we are bound to respect. It must have been the early printing of the title-page which has left Sievers still Professor in Tübingen, instead of installing him in Zacher's chair at Halle. We congratulate the translator upon accomplishing a most useful but toilsome task; we hope that his public will not prove ungrateful. Now that his hands are free, we look with eagerness for his more original work upon the Northumbrian gospels.

—In a recent number of the *Revue Bleue* the critic, M. Jules Lemaitre, gives a very entertaining account of the new school of French poets, the symbolists, decadents, and impressionists. These gentlemen, discontented with the monotony and conventionalism of French verse, attempt to put into their rhymes a little more color and music, and aim only at producing in the mind of the reader a vague impression. They seek for the musical value of the words, taking their sense into account only to a certain extent. In order to make this easier, M. René Ghil has published a pamphlet, entitled 'Traité du Verbe.' In a style that it is difficult to understand, no matter which way you turn it, he explains what is meant by symbolism. We find from this that of the vowels, taking them, of course, in their French pronunciation, A is black, E white, I blue, O red, U yellow. Black is the organ, and expresses doubt, monotony, and foolishness; white is the harp or serenity; blue, the violin, passion and prayer; red, the trumpet (this is a very old symbol, as is seen in the well-known story of the blind man), glory and triumph; yellow, the flute, simplicity and smiles. One can readily understand the desire for greater variety in French verse, which Lemaitre himself says has always too much resembled fine prose, and in which to seize the rhythm it is necessary to pronounce vowels and syllables which in prose are silent. These young men, too, have perhaps noticed that indifferent verse seems much finer in a language which one only half knows; or at least where one does not perceive the exact shade of meaning of all the words, from which only a vague impression is received. We used to wonder, by the way, whether this were not one reason for the greater enthusiasm displayed by young persons in learning German, where they soon are taught by ballads and short poems, than in studying French, which is chiefly pursued in prose. The trouble about the impressionists is that they give so little heed to the sense of the words they use, or employ them in meanings so out of the common, that where these verses are not obscure they cannot be understood at all. Here is a specimen from M. Paul Verlaine:

"En ta dentelle où n'est notoire
Mon doux évanouissement,
Taisons pour l'âtre sans histoire
Tel vœu de lèvres résumant.

"Toute ombre hors d'un territoire
Se teinte itérativement
À la lueur exhalatoire
Des pétales de remuement."

—Voltaire gave us a receipt for finding whether French verses were good or bad—"put them in prose." Here are some more of M. Verlaine's verses in prose:

"The moon was spatting its tints of zinc in obtuse angles; whiffs of smoke shaped like fives were coming out thick and black from the high pointed roofs.

"The sky was gray. The north wind was weeping like a bassoon. Far away a tomcat, shivering and discreet, was miauling in a manner strange and shrill.

"I was walking along, dreaming of the divine Plato and of Phidias, of Salamis and Marathon, beneath the winking eye of the blue gas-jets."

That is all of it. But we agree with M. Lemaitre in not knowing what it means, and cannot see the symbolism even of the vowels and consonants. Here, however, is another which sounds as well as most modern poetry, and, when properly read and reread, does somehow leave a vague impression, but too vague to state:

"Le souvenir avec le crépuscule
Rougeoie et tremble à l'ardent horizon
De l'espérance en flamme qui recule
Et s'agrandit ainsi qu'une cloison
Mystérieuse, où mainte floraison—
Dahlia, lis, tulipe et renoncule—
S'élance autour d'un treillis et circule
Parmi la maladive exhalaison
De parfums lourds et chauds, dont le poison—
Dahlia, lis, tulipe et renoncule—
Noyant mes sens, mon âme et ma raison,
Mêle dans une immense pâmoison
Le souvenir avec le crépuscule."

Such is the art of the poet that the lines produce the same impression, when read from bottom to top as from top to bottom.

—A careful and interesting biographical record is Antonio Zardo's recent work, 'Il Petrarca e i Carraresi' (Milan: Hoepli), treating of the intimate relations existing between the poet and the Paduan princes, Jacopo (the second) and Francesco (styled the Old) di Carrara. The book is, on the whole, the fullest narrative of Petrarch's closing years, which were spent in the dominions of these princes at Padua and Arquà, and were years of peace and honor. The various contemporary accounts of his death are printed *in extenso* and closely criticised, and the volume closes with an appendix of documents, some of them new. Professor Arturo Graf, of the University of Turin, has occupied himself, on the other hand, with a period subsequent to Petrarch's death, of which he has produced a vivid picture in his 'Petrarchismo ed Antipetrarchismo nel Cinquecento,' reprinted from the pages of the *Nuova Antologia*. He does full justice to the myriad of rhymesters whose dull and heavy productions bade fair, at one time, to drag the unexcelled lyrics of their master and model with them into oblivion. One of the men who did something to prevent such a catastrophe was the famous author of the 'Secchia rapita,' to whom a young writer, Orazio Bacci, has devoted his essay on 'Le *Considerazioni sopra le Rime del Petrarca* di Alessandro Tassoni,' in which is told, with much painstaking research, the story of a singular literary quarrel of the early years of the seventeenth century. This combat, carried on with the usual verbose acrimony of those days, grew out of Tassoni's commentary on Petrarch, the two principal belligerents being Tassoni himself and a somewhat pedantic Paduan student, Giosefo degli Aromatari. The work has, as an appendix, a good bibliography of the letters of Tassoni, edited and inedited. Its author is at present preparing an edition of the 'Epistolæ sine Titulo' of Petrarch, which, by reason of the author's violent invective against the Papal curia, were not included in Fracassetti's great collection of Petrarch's letters. A still later Petrarch publication is a pretty brochure by Giuseppe Agnelli, 'De le tre Canzoni sorelle di Francesco Petrarca' (Bologna, 1887); it contains the Marsand text of the three famous odes, with a comment chiefly remarkable because it cites the opinions of noted critics from Varchi to De Sanctis. It is perhaps not improper to end this hasty résumé of recent additions to Petrarch literature with a reference to Mr. J. A. Symonds's sketch of the poet in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' though it be now more than two years old. It was written before the astonishing "finds" of the past year, and even before Professor Bartoli's happy discovery of the real "dedicatee" of the magnificent canzone, *Spirto gentil*, but it is, nevertheless, the only readable or accurate biography of Petrarch published in the English language. Its brevity is its only fault.

—'L'Ornement Slave et Oriental, d'après les Manuscrits,' is the title of one of the most superb volumes of the past year, having more than 120 plates, and letterpress in Russian and French. The author of this artistic collection, Vladimir Vasilievitch Stasoff, at first held the common view, that Russian ornament had been borrowed in early times from MSS. of Byzantine, Bulgarian, and Servian origin. A more profound study of MSS. in the last category existing in the Imperial Public Library at St. Petersburg and elsewhere showed that direct borrowing was not sufficient to account for all the ornamental forms present in Russian MSS. He found it necessary to enlarge his scope of investigation and to admit many other nations hitherto neglected. This volume is the result of the author's studies for the last twenty-five years, and the specimens of ornament have been taken from MSS. in all the great European libraries, as well as from those preserved in Russia and in the countries cited. Rare MSS. were sent for study from Kieff, Bucharest, the Ecclesiastical Academy of Kazan, etc.; and a Galician MS. from Poltava. Among the illustrations are some taken from the magnificent copy of the Koran purchased by General Kaufmann from the mollahs of a Mosque in Samarcand, and which is now in the Imperial Public Library. In Mr. Stasoff's collection great care has been taken to reproduce

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color and outline with absolute accuracy, and every design is accompanied by a reference. The Public Library in Boston has been marked for a copy of this splendid work (which was published by permission of the late Emperor, Alexander II., chiefly from the imperial exchequer) as a present from the author.

IN GOOD OLD COLONY TIMES.

The Colonial Laws of Massachusetts. Reprinted from the edition of 1672, with the supplements through 1686. Published by order of the City Council of Boston, under the supervision of William H. Whitmore, Record Commissioner. Boston. 1887. Pp. 395.

THE publication in 1672 was the third published revision of the colony laws, and was entitled 'The General Laws and Liberties of the Massachusetts Colony.' The next previous Revision was published in 1660, and the earliest of all in 1648; but of this last it is not known that any copies are extant. The production of the volume before us is most creditable to Mr. Whitmore, as well as to the city of Boston, by whose judicious and liberal appropriation the expense has been defrayed. The method employed was a photographic facsimile, corrected (as is necessary in such cases) by the most scrupulous and literal proof-reading.

This Revision is divided into subjects, or heads of laws, arranged alphabetically, so that it is easy to ascertain the statute law of the time on any subject considered in the Revision. Moreover, an abundant index (not only the original of 1672, but one for the present compilation) enables us to ascertain and refer readily to all that is in the book. As the legislation of the different years is generally in distinct paragraphs, with the date of enactment affixed, we can trace much of the earliest Revision, and some legislation prior to 1641. Under the title "College," for example, we have in the first paragraph the provisions made in the years 1636, 1640, and 1642 concerning Harvard College, and in the remaining paragraphs the contribution to that institution in 1659.

It has been suggested that the legislation of the colony was based upon the laws of Moses, and that its laws were merely transcripts of those laws. While this is measurably true of the very small portion embraced under the title "Capital Laws," it is altogether incorrect as to the rest of the Revision of 1672. In the title in question sixteen crimes punishable with death are enumerated in separate paragraphs, with a reference in the case of fourteen to certain books of the Old Testament, and generally to the chapter and verse, indicating that the respective crimes were punished with death by the Jews. Again, under the title "Indians," the first paragraph is as follows: "For settling the Indians' title to lands in this Jurisdiction, it is declared and ordered by this Court and authority thereof, that what lands any of the Indians in this Jurisdiction have possessed and improved, by subduing the same, they have just right unto, according to that in Gen. 1, 28, and chap. 9, 1, and Psal. 115, 16." With the exception of these two titles, a careful examination has not discovered in the whole of the Revision of 1672 any reference to any book of the Old Testament.

Nor in the other laws is there reference in terms to the laws of any other country. Though they are full of the principles and provisions of the English common law, there is but a single reference to any English authority. We find this under the title "Ships, Ship-Carpenters," the first paragraph of which (probably a law of 1641) authorizes the appointment of "some able man to survey the work [of shipbuilding] and workmen from time to time, *as is usual in England*," etc. On the other hand, for intrinsic evidence that the colony laws were prepared by those who were acquainted with the laws of England, take the title "Lands, Free Lands":

"It is also ordered, and by this Court declared, [viz., in 1641], that all our lands and heritages shall be free from all fines and licenses, upon alienations, and from all heriots, wardships, liveries, primer-seisins, year, day and waste, escheats and forfeitures upon the death of parents, or ancestors, natural, unnatural, casual, or judicial, and that for ever."

This shows most clearly how heavily to their knowledge the burden of feudal exactions in the mother country had oppressed the owners of lands, and the determination of the colonists to have none of them here; and the specific enumeration of the matters prohibited indicates an acquaintance with the laws relating to the conveyance and descent of lands, and the oppressive appendages of the feudal tenure. So the punishment provided for scolds—that they be "gagged, or set in a ducking-stool, and dipt over head and ears three times in some convenient place of fresh or salt water, as the court or magistrate may judge meet"—is substantially of the same nature as was imposed by the common law of England in like cases. Other instances might be adduced.

In 1647, in order clearly to determine the meaning of a clause in the "Common Liberties" of 1641—to wit: "Every inhabitant who is an householder, shall have free fishing and fowling in any great ponds, bays, coves, and rivers, so far as the sea ebbs and flows within the precincts of the town where they dwell," etc.—it was enacted that the proprietor of the land adjoining such waters shall have propriety to low-water mark, where the sea does not ebb more than a hundred rods. This Colony ordinance is the foundation of the rule of law now established by usage in New England, contrary to the rule of the English common law which limits the ownership to the line of high-water mark; the King owning the land over which the sea ebbs and flows.

The infliction of bodily punishments for offences appears to have been left, within certain limits, largely to the discretion of the magistrates. Under the title, "Punishment, Torture," it is declared that none are allowed that are inhuman, barbarous, or cruel. Yet the language of the law would seem to leave the way open for the infliction of such punishments. The provisions are, that

"no man shall be beaten with above forty stripes for one fact at one time, nor shall any man be punished with whipping except he have not otherwise to answer the law, unless his crime be very shameful, and his course of life, vicious and profligate; and no man shall be forced by torture to confess any crime against himself or any other, unless it be in some capital case where he is first fully convicted by clear and sufficient evidence to be guilty, after which, if the case be of that nature, that it is very apparent there be other conspirators or confederates with him, then he may be tortured, yet not with such tortures as are barbarous and inhuman."

We can gather from these statutes striking illustrations of the great difficulty, if not impossibility, of extinguishing, or entirely suppressing, the instincts, impulses, affections, and passions of a neighborhood or people by legislation. Take, for example, the laws and regulations for the observance of the Lord's day. One would suppose that if, in any community, such regulations would be scrupulously and willingly obeyed, it would be in this colony, where at first only church members could be freemen, and only freemen could vote. Yet, in 1653, a law was passed (which appears in the Revision of 1672, title "Sabbath") punishing the violations of such regulations first with admonition and then with fine, and persistent violations with fine or stripes, in the preamble to which law were set forth the objectionable practices it was desired to prevent. Five years later, in 1658, the practices evidently continuing and perhaps increasing, an additional statute was passed, contemplating fine or corporal punishment, with the following preamble:

"Whereas, by too sad experience, it is observed, the sun being set, both every Saturday and on the Lord's day, young people and others take liberty to walk and sport themselves in the streets or fields, in the several towns of this Jurisdiction, to the dishonor of God and the disturbance of others in their religious exercises, and too frequently repair to public houses of entertainment, and there sit drinking, all which tends not only to the hindering of due preparation for the Sabbath, but as much as in them lyeth renders the Ordinances of God unprofitable, and threatens the rooting out of the power of Godliness and procuring the wrath and judgment of God upon us and our posterity; For prevention whereof it is ordered," etc.

In the autumn of 1675 a remarkable statute was passed—in some respects the most remarkable in the volume—entitled "Provoking Evils." It is an act of profound humiliation and confession of the sins of the people, a sincere repentance therefor, and a declaration of the evils which have justly provoked the anger of the Almighty. It shows the terror of the colonists, and illustrates, in a somewhat exaggerated way, their methods in like cases. The preamble, too long to quote here, is followed by twelve sections setting forth and punishing the "provoking evils" which are to be avoided in future: (1) a neglect of discipline in the churches, especially respecting children; (2) the wearing of long hair or of periwigs by some men, and immodest hairdressing by women; (3) pride in apparel; (4) the open meeting of Quakers, with their damnable heresies and abominable idolatries; (5) a profane turning of the back on the pulpit before the close of service; (6) boyish disorderliness in church; (7) "common swearing and cursing"; (8) excessive drinking; (9) a woful breach of the Fifth Commandment; (10) idleness "(which is a sin of Sodom)"; (11) "oppression in the midst of us, not only by such shopkeepers and merchants who set excessive prices on their goods,—but also by mechanics and day laborers who are daily guilty of that evil"; (12) a loose and sinful custom of riding from town to town, with tavern frequenting by both sexes under pretence of attending lectures. The judgment that people of sound orthodoxy to-day would pass upon the foregoing, illustrates one of the differences between public opinion in 1675 and in 1888.

We close with the remark that the whole volume contains matters of great interest to those who take pleasure in studying the building up of the colonies in New England, and especially the Massachusetts Colony. It is hardly a stretch of the imagination to think that by means of this facsimile—resembling even in the appearance of the paper the edition read by the men of 1672—we catch more readily their spirit and that of the Colony, and understand more intelligibly their laws. For this we renew our thanks to the city of Boston, and to the Senior Record Commissioner, whose services on behalf of local history and antiquities are ever gratuitously at the disposal of his townsmen.

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THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.

Die Akropolis von Athen, nach den Berichten der Alten und den neuesten Erforschungen. Von Adolf Boetticher. Mit 132 Textfiguren und 36 Tafeln. 8vo, pp. 295. Berlin: J. Springer; New York: Westermann. 1888.

If we make use of a trite publisher's phrase in saying that "this book supplies a long-felt want," it is because in the present case the words are literally true. It is thirty-four years since the first and best edition of Beulé's 'L'Acropole d'Athènes' was published, and although successive excavations have put that further and further behind the times, it has still remained the best handbook of the Acropolis ever written. The second edition, which appeared eight years later, contained merely the substance of the first in more condensed and popular form, and was therefore of less value to scholars. Indeed, incredible as it seems, in view of the attractiveness of the subject, Beulé is the only modern writer who has devoted an entire book exclusively to the Acropolis; and of those who since his time have written upon Athens, none have superseded him on his own ground. Breton's 'Athènes' (1861) is so largely inspired by Beulé's book as to be little more than a weak reflection of it; of Dyer's 'Ancient Athens' (1873) the Acropolis occupies but a small portion, and that based mainly upon Beulé, with the addition of an excellent description of the Dionysiac Theatre; Wachsmuth's 'Stadt Athen,' the first volume of which appeared in 1874, has as yet treated the Acropolis only topographically; and Burnouf's 'La Ville et l'Acropole d'Athènes' (1877) was so evidently written in a spirit of hostility towards Beulé, and with a view to opposing him at every point, that the author allowed his prejudices to run loose, and thus spoiled what otherwise might have been a valuable book.

Yet the need of a new work on the subject which should summarize the results of the later excavations, and give to general readers, in accessible form, the changes in facts and theories brought about by these excavations, has been growing greater with every year. When Beulé wrote, the Dionysiac Theatre had not been discovered; the terrace on the south side of the Acropolis, on which we now see the remains of the sanctuary of Asklepios, was still covered with a heap of refuse soil thrown over from the excavations above; the Temple of Niké Apteros had been reconstructed, but its connection with the Propylaia had not been made clear; the floor of the Parthenon was still encumbered with remains; several of the old Turkish houses were still standing on various parts of the citadel; the excavations for the museum east of the Parthenon, which brought to light many fragments of early Greek art, were not begun; Michaelis had not published his exhaustive work on the Parthenon. The accomplishment of all these undertakings would have warranted the publication of a new book some years ago, but the investigations conducted by Dr. Dörpfeld and the Greek Archæological Society during the last five years have been in many respects more important, as regards results, than those of the thirty years preceding. The discovery of a temple of Athena, hitherto entirely unsuspected, in the very middle of the Acropolis, has upset many pet theories regarding the early history of the place, and he who seeks his knowledge of it from Beulé to-day gets what is indeed antiquated. Naturally it is impossible that everybody who is interested in the subject should be able to follow all these excavations, and only special students can hope to keep pace with the literature to which they give rise. When, therefore, such a student takes the trouble to bring together the results of these investigations, and to publish them in an attractive and easily accessible form, his book is an offering that will be welcome to many. Our only regret is that such a book should have appeared finally in German instead of English.

Herr Boetticher, who, by the way, is not to be confounded with the author of the 'Tektonik der Hellenen' and the 'Untersuchungen auf der Akropolis, in 1862,' to whom we believe he is in no way related, has already proved his qualification to undertake such a task by his beautiful volume on 'Olympia,' which is by far the best guide to and commentary upon the large volumes of photographs of the excavations that has yet appeared. An architect by profession, his archæological spurs were won in the German expedition to Olympia, of which he was a member. Upon his return to Germany, he wrote a book which in a popular style described the history of Olympia in antiquity, and the excavations carried on there in recent times, especially, of course, the famous work in which he shared, giving at the same time a summary of the theories to which these investigations had given rise. His book was carefully and thoroughly done, and found such ready reception that a second edition was called for shortly. This success encouraged him to try a similar book on the Acropolis of Athens, with the result that we have before us.

The plan followed is substantially the same as in the 'Olympia,' that is, the subject is treated chronologically rather than topographically. Of the four parts into which the book is divided, the first is an historical sketch of the Acropolis, more especially from the downfall of paganism to the present day; the second describes it from the earliest times to the end of Cimon's administration; the third is devoted to the age of Pericles and Pheidias, and the last takes us from the year 400 B. C. into the period of Roman dominion. In this way the author gives us, as far as is possible from ancient accounts and modern investigations, a picture of the Acropolis at each of the epochs described; and the statues and reliefs which excavations have brought to light are mentioned not in the order of their discovery, but according to the epoch in which they were erected. Beulé, it will be remembered, followed the topographical method, beginning with the Propylaia and describing everything known about that locality, of whatever period, and proceeding thence towards the Parthenon.

Boetticher's book lacks the brilliancy of Beulé's; it has none of the fine descriptions which made that book such attractive reading, and it is not calculated, like that, to inspire enthusiasm for the subject in the mind of him who does not already feel it; but those who go to the book simply for information, to learn what archæologists of the highest standing know and think about the Acropolis to-day, will not be disappointed. The author says at the outset that his aim is not to produce any new doctrines, but to make as clear as possible a summary of the opinions of those who have made especial studies of the various monuments there; and the care and intelligence with which he has done this, entitle his book to high commendation. The skill with which he has stated the gist of a whole library of essays will save students an enormous amount of unnecessary reading. Investigations and discoveries upon the Acropolis are described down to the very month in which the book must have gone to press, some of the statues unearthed in 1886 figuring among the illustrations; and there is even a brief statement from Dörpfeld of his latest investigations in the Dionysiac Theatre, the results of which have not yet been published officially. Herr Boetticher's professional instincts have led him to give minute descriptions of each of the buildings from a technical point of view, in which architectural terms and measurements play so large a part as to be somewhat confusing to the layman, and therefore prevent the book from being popular in the most general sense; yet this very feature will give it additional value to architects and others who wish more than a superficial treatment of the subject.

Herr Boetticher has, in common with many of his countrymen, one tendency of which the reader should be warned beforehand, and that is a disposition to accept the latest theory as the best, merely because it is the latest. It is only on such grounds that we can understand his following Dörpfeld unquestioningly through the revels of the latter's imagination; for readers of the later numbers of the *Mittheilungen des Instituts in Athen* have learned that between Dörpfeld the investigator and Dörpfeld the theorist there is a breach which few of us are able to jump. A rather amusing instance of this tendency occurs in the description of the western pediment of the Parthenon. Those who are familiar with Carrey's drawing of this pediment will remember that near the right end of the group are two figures (usually numbered S T), one of which is seated in the lap of the other, and nude. Both are gone now, and Carrey's drawing has not left it clear whether this nude figure was male or female. Opinion at present inclines to the belief that it was male, and the popular interpretation of Aphrodite in the lap of Thalassa has gone under. So great is the fascination of the present "topical" theories, by which half the figures in the two pediments are being resolved into personifications of rivers, clouds, and mountains, that Löschke in 1884 published an essay to show that the figures S T could be none others than Herakles sitting in the lap of Melite, the object of one of the lusty hero's innumerable amours, and, at the same time, the personification of the district in which stood his principal Athenian shrine! Then the adjoining figure, Q, becomes Demeter Kurotrophos, taking care of the two children of this union, who stand at either side of her. As Herr Boetticher ingenuously remarks, this group forms "ein Familienbild, noch intimer als sie die attischen Grabsteine zeigen"; and yet, in spite of its manifest absurdity, in spite of the shockingly inartistic character of such a conception, he accepts it enthusiastically, and thinks that "jetzt erst kommt Leben und Zusammenhang in die Gruppe."

As an offset to this, however, it is gratifying to note that, notwithstanding the general upheaval of old and established opinions regarding the Acropolis which the recent investigations have occasioned, he still stands by Penrose's theories of the curvatures in the horizontal lines, and declares that Durm's attempt to prove them the result of accident was not borne out by the facts.

The illustrations form a considerable and important portion of the book, there being 168 in all. Many of them, and particularly the architectural drawings, will be of great assistance to the reader, and the plates give a very attractive appearance to the book. Two of the plates and twenty-five of the illustrations in the text were derived by permission from Durm's 'Die Baukunst der Griechen' in the second volume of the 'Handbuch der Architektur.' More of the plates were taken from Stuart and Revett's 'Antiquities of Athens' and the 'Ancient Marbles in the British Museum'; and while Stuart's drawings are always interesting to compare with the present condition of the Acropolis, we

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wonder at the author's selecting the 'Ancient Marbles' as the source of his illustrations of the Parthenon sculptures, when he had at his command so many processes of reproducing them directly from the originals. Those in the 'Ancient Marbles' were drawn and engraved, and although with much of the spirit and feeling of the originals, they are not accurate enough to suit the taste of to-day. Several of them are antiquated, and so Herr Boetticher represents, in plate xxiii, the Nikê without the leg which she now possesses, and, in plate xiv, the metope of the Lapith and Centaur, without the restoration published some years ago by Waldstein. And we must blame the publishers for making mechanical reproductions of copper-plate engravings and publishing them with plate-marks. This is a sort of trickery, entirely unnecessary, which is only calculated to deceive the uninitiated, and is therefore severely to be condemned. With this exception the illustrations seem to us excellently and clearly rendered, and for them hardly less than for the text itself we recommend the book to all who are interested in its immortal subject.

SOME NEW GERMAN GRAMMARS.

Deutsche Grammatik für Amerikaner, nach einer neuen praktischen Methode. Von Carla Wenckebach und Josepha Schrakamp. Henry Holt & Co.

Complete German Manual for High Schools and Colleges. By W. C. Sawyer. Chicago: Buckbee & Co.

Graded German Lessons: being a Practical German Grammar. By W. Eysenbach. Revised and largely rewritten by W. C. Collar. Boston: Ginn & Co.

A German Grammar for Schools and Colleges, based upon Meissner's. By E. S. Joynes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

THE Wenckebach-Schrakamp grammar is intended especially to be used in the "Natural Method." Among novel features the authors claim the following, viz., that the rules are preceded in all cases by preliminary examples, and the large number of exercises affords ample opportunity for diversified practical application. Part i. treats of the different parts of speech. Part ii. is entirely devoted to the verbs. Part iii. contains the syntax. The appendix offers "hints about German genders and other peculiarities of the German language which will be found particularly valuable to American students." These so-called "hints" as to genders are cut-and-dried "rules," to be learned by heart and recited. Why the whole grammar should be especially adapted to the wants of Americans, is not clear. Were it not for the English preface, the work might be expected to do as well for the English, Italians, and French. It is to be feared that those who have studied German with this grammar will have to unlearn some things when they enter into the deeper, though less "natural," study of the language. Take, for instance, the statements that in the old language all verbs have in the imperfect and participle a different vowel from that in the infinitive (p. 209); that there is no ablaut (*sic*) in the imperative of verbs of Braune's sixth class; that verbs like *brennen* are partly strong and partly weak.

Prof. Sawyer's Manual is intended as an aid both in the "natural" and in the "grammar" method. The first part, the so-called "Theory," is a revision of part of the author's 'Practical German Grammar.' It covers very much the same ground as Whitney's or Sheldon's small grammar, and has a similar arrangement; but the syntax is very meagre. All these diminutive grammars are short roads to reading, and a special help to teachers who do not choose to pick out from eight to twelve lessons on essentials in Whitney's and Brandt's large grammars; they thus oblige the classes who go beyond the elementary stage to buy two grammars. Part ii. contains the "Practice," consisting of exercises for writing and oral practice, a guide to correspondence, to reformed spelling and punctuation, a list of irregular verbs and the vocabularies. In the verb-list we notice many inseparable and even separable compound verbs. At the very end of the book is a curious feature, viz., one page with a table of conjugations (the whole of *loben* and the present of *sein*), another page with a table of declensions (the articles, the adjective, personal pronoun, and a most remarkable system of three substantive declensions).

In Eysenbach's 'Graded German Lessons' we have the usual style of practical grammars of a modern language, though the reviser is not an advocate *à outrance* of the natural method. In the very long preface a good idea is emphasized, viz., that the reading "should be begun at the very earliest practicable moment, and should occupy the largest practicable place." There is a new English word, *antithete*, which is not in Murray's great dictionary in that form. There are many comparisons between Latin and German syntax which seem to us superfluous and cumbersome for such a book. In the written alphabet only the old forms of C, F, and H are given. The accent has been thoroughly given in the German-English vocabulary. If the reviser had used the grave accent for the next to the strongest stress, he could have given the pronunciation of such a long word as "Leihbibliothek" more accurately than he does. This is one of the many text-books which, it is claimed, were "born in the class-room."

Prof. Joynes has intended to make a *working* grammar, and to admit that it fulfils its scope and purpose is no small praise. The American editor is a teacher of long experience, and has once before worked over a grammar, viz., Otto's, of which it will be a formidable rival. Joynes says nothing about the natural method, to which, nevertheless, the exercises and the whole plan are as suitable as the grammars mentioned above. Part i. contains the orthography, pronunciation, and accidence; Part ii., the derivation and composition; Part iii., the syntax. The exercises are excellent, and not too numerous for students of high-school grade and for younger ones. The syntax, Joynes suggests, may be studied consecutively, or used by reference only. The latter, with the use of the more difficult continuous passages for translation into German, would be the method for college students. The skilful use of references, though frowned upon by many teachers, is a unique feature, and cannot be too much commended. It appears well in the list of strong verbs and in the vocabulary. We know of no grammar in which the noun and adjective declensions are so well grouped. The strong verbs are not so well arranged. We wish Prof. Joynes had cut loose from the old-fashioned chaotic arrangement, and adopted the classes of the scientific grammars of Braune's series.

In the otherwise very good chapter on the relation of German and English in Part ii., Grimm's law is stated by using H (hard) A (aspirate) S (soft). In this, Prof. Joynes has not got beyond Peile and Morris. The corresponding English and German sounds can be given without alluding to Grimm's law. An elementary grammar has no business with it. We expect no discussion, certainly no explanation, of the origin of life in a physiological or biological text-book. How many teachers can state Grimm's law? Look at the loose statement of it in the latest book by Skeat, in his 'Principles of English Etymology.'

The Joynes-Meissner is not a large book. In fact, it is growing quite clear that the advocates of the "grammar method," used alone or combined with the oral method, produce smaller books than the advocates of the "natural method," who once scorned all books, but now produce long and full grammars, that serve up again the stale Ollendorffian twaddle. There is no college or university in the country in which German may not be taken up from the beginning, since none absolutely requires it for admission. Freshmen and sophomores must either begin German in Brandt or Whitney, or take for eight or ten weeks a small grammar like Sheldon's or Otis's, or the smaller Whitney. They have not the time to go over the long exercise grammars, which leave them in the lurch as reference-books at the end of a year's study. Then the students are set back by having to learn new declensions and new verb-classes. They feel at sea when they have to read the severer eighteenth and nineteenth-century classics, to say nothing of the sixteenth and seventeenth-century texts, after having gone through one of those books that promised to carry them to full mastery on "palace-cars," as the *Atlantic Monthly* expressed it. Though based on Meissner's popular work, the American form of it is so far original that Prof. Joynes, by giving credit in the preface as the custom is, might well have put his name alone in the title. Some technical faults have been found by reviewers in *Modern Language Notes*, which, however, a second edition can mend.

Grant in Peace: From Appomattox to Mt. McGregor. By Adam Badeau, Brevet Brigadier-General, etc. Hartford: S. S. Scranton & Co. 1887.

THIS book shows Gen. Badeau at his best as a writer. It is a compilation of articles (revised, no doubt) which have appeared in the daily papers, each article being complete in itself. For this sort of work the author has qualifications of a rare order. As an historian he is not so highly gifted; and, though read and approved by Grant, Badeau's military history of that great General lacks the merit and attraction of the volume entitled 'Grant in Peace.' Indeed, this volume is more than interesting, it is charming. The undertaking admitted embellishment, and although some of the events are highly colored, the work is wrought out in artistic fashion, and the scenes change so rapidly that the reader is never wearied. The main facts, with some fiction, concerning Grant's intercourse with the leading people of his time in this country and abroad, are sketched by the pen of a master in that sort of work. Grant's relations to Andrew Johnson, Stanton, Sherman, Sheridan, Hancock, Seward, Motley, Sumner, Fish, Garfield, Arthur, Blaine, Logan, and other distinguished men are portrayed with remarkable clearness and vigor.

While it is true that the book is interesting throughout, it is perhaps equally true that it contains some revelations which, if true, might well have been omitted; such, for example, as those about the behavior of President Lincoln's wife during a visit to the Army of the Potomac. The author excuses Mrs. Lincoln's erratic course by the explanation that she was demented, but he fails to observe that the reason he gives for the poor woman's strange conduct affords of itself good ground for not publishing an account of it. It may be, also, that Gen. Badeau tells things about Grant's private

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affairs which a confidential friend should not disclose. He seems to have some misgivings on this point, for he says: "If I tell any of his secrets now, when he cannot be pained, his silent shade will not reproach me." Caution upon this point was necessary, because, though Gen. Grant cannot now be pained by the telling of his secrets, any disclosures that could pain him if living will certainly pain his widow and children.

In some instances the author's love of pictorial writing carries him too far, leading to the creation of mere effects and to the assignment of insufficient and incorrect causes for important results. His graphic account of the surrender at Appomattox affords an illustration. He attributes the decision that the vanquished officers should retain their side-arms to the chance that Grant looked up while writing the terms of surrender, and was dazzled by Lee's beautiful sword, presented by the ladies of Virginia. "The glitter of the rebel weapon," says the author, "suggested to Grant to spare the conquered the humiliation of surrendering it." That is very picturesque, but the plain truth is, that Grant in the matter of side-arms treated Lee at Appomattox just as he had treated Buckner at Donelson and Pemberton at Vicksburg, and the glitter of Lee's jewelled weapon had nothing to do with it.

The account of Grant's visit to England is especially pathetic. "He was my chief, my general, my friend," says the author. "He threw his arms around me—and I kissed him. I was with him incessantly during his stay in England. He wrote at once a telegram to the Government asking that I might be permitted to accompany him;" etc. Grant's account of this omitted the hugging and kissing, and was to the effect that Badeau devised the scheme to have himself detailed to accompany Grant in England; and that Badeau prepared for Grant's signature the cable message asking the President to make the detail. As a joke on Badeau, Grant used to tell how the diplomatic secretary upon this occasion wheedled him out of his money as well as his name. After Grant had agreed that his name should be put to the message, Badeau said, "General, it will cost about twenty dollars to send this cable, and, to make the despatch *yours in every respect*, you had better give me the money to pay for it." Grant, unable or unwilling to resist the sharp logic of the situation, "smiled a sickly smile" and handed over the money.

Gen. Badeau's chapters on Grant and President Johnson are of surpassing interest, shedding as they do a clear light upon one of the most critical periods in the history of the country. It is almost impossible to realize that Grant possessed the personal qualities to take the part he did. Down to that time he had been a soldier and nothing else. Brought up in the school of discipline, obedience to the orders of the authority appointed over him was not only his creed, but his habit. Yet as General of the Army, standing face to face with the President of the United States, he flatly refused to obey the orders of his constitutional commander in chief. The explanation is, that Grant acted upon his own conviction that the President's course was treasonable, and that he must save the country, not only from the danger of the President's conduct, but also from the danger of charging the festering treason he felt sure he had discovered in the highest quarter. He therefore took upon himself in silence the appalling task of thwarting the Chief Magistrate without exposing him. Forced by his own sense of duty to his country to disobey the orders of the highest military authority in the Government, and deterred by his own judgment from announcing the danger that threatened, Grant's responsibility and peril are without a parallel in our history. "Stanton," said Johnson to Grant, "holding the office of Secretary of War, is not and cannot be the President's mouthpiece in military matters, and therefore," said the President in person to the General of the Army, "I order you not to obey *him*, but to come to *me* for orders." The President's assertion of Stanton's lack of authority was a stern fact, and was unanswerable. Grant's reply to the President was, "Give me that in writing"; and he left the august presence, and continued to obey the Secretary of War. What effect the President's written orders would have produced cannot be told; they never appeared in that form. There is not a more striking chapter in the history of the time than Gen. Badeau's account of all this.

If Gen. Badeau had witnessed the last scenes of Grant's life, no pen so well as his could have depicted them for history. But he was not at Mt. McGregor. The truth long kept back has recently been brought out by Gen. Badeau's own action. Nearly three months before Grant's death, the intimacy of years between them was suddenly broken, and the estrangement that followed continued without abatement to the end.

A Manual of North American Birds. By Robert Ridgway. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1887. Large 8vo, pp. xii, 632, pll. 124.

WHAT is most surprising in this case is that a publisher could be found to print a book in the form of this one, upon any pretext or for any purpose. The arrangement of the paragraphs is unfortunate in two respects. The exigencies of printing a large set of analytical tables, such as those of which the work entirely consists, require a good deal of blank space, but nothing like the amount of it we find here, where the "hanging" of successive paragraphs often reduces the text to a narrow column of type meandering down the right-hand edge. To such an extent is this carried, that what is probably only a sad lack of skill in making copy acquires the appearance of an attempt of the publishers to pad the matter of a handy little duodecimo into a bulky octavo. It is safe to say that more than one-third of the type-bed itself is left blank, to say nothing of a generous width of margin. This waste paper would have fully accommodated the whole 464 outline diagrams, which have been disadvantageously printed on 124 additional pages, still further increasing the bulk of the volume by about one-fifth of its thickness. Such disposition of text and cuts may be looked for in works *de luxe*, but is inappropriate to a technical handbook, one of whose distinctive characters is that it should be handy. Properly printed, the manual would have made a tidy small octavo of less than half its present size and price—which will together, we fear, prove an insuperable obstacle to the success of the book.

The substance of the Manual is entirely tabular, consisting of analytical tables of the technical characters of the orders, families, genera, and other groups of the birds of North America, constructed on the antithetical principles first brought into vogue by Dr. Coues in 1872. The analysis is pushed to the extreme, the ultimate subdivisions of species (inappreciable except to the trained expert) being formulated with much precision. The work will thus prove of great value to the specialist, though we fear that it presupposes in all cases an extent of information possessed by few students or amateur ornithologists, and certainly by no appreciable fraction of the public. This is unfortunate, since it restricts the use of the work to the professed ornithologist, who will chiefly use it as a means of refreshing his memory on vexed technical points. Mr. Ridgway has "the eye of a hawk" for a shade of color or a hairline of form, and is at his best in the ultimate discrimination of subspecies. In such matters we have probably no higher expert authority to fall back upon; and the wholly exceptional facilities he has enjoyed for many years in handling the greatest collection of American birds in the world—that of the National Museum, of which he is the ornithological curator—give him a right to speak as it were *ex cathedrâ*. He is, however, less happy in treating the broader aspects of the subject, either from narrowness of view or of immaturity of the critical faculty; and we are pained to see into what lapses so well trained an ornithologist has fallen in his treatment of the higher groups.

For example, in the "key" to the higher groups with which the work opens we first find the alternative: a^1, "Hind toe connected by web," etc., and a^2, "Hind toe not connected." This is well enough for all four-toed birds, but how about birds without any hind toe? A student with one of our many three-toed birds in hand, which he wishes to identify, is baulked at the start; for the "key" has no keyhole. The very next sentence reads: b^1, "Nostrils tubular"; b^2, "Nostrils not tubular." Now, the only place where a student who has in hand a bird with four toes, the "hind toe not connected," and "nostrils tubular," can fetch up is at *Tubinares*, the petrel family, where Mr. Ridgway intended to send him safely; yet the bird in hand, fulfilling these requirements, might be a caprimulgine, of an entirely different order. The very next pair of alternatives, namely, nostrils non-tubular and cutting edges of bill c^1, "serrated," and c^2, "not serrated," should bring him up at *Anseres*, the ducks and geese; yet the bird in hand, with hind toe free, nostrils non-tubular, and tomia serrate, might be the blue-headed sawbill, *Momotus cœruleiceps*, described on page 278. Mr. Ridgway knows this, of course, as well as any other ornithologist; but the persons whom the book is designed to teach do not, and are therefore left in the lurch.

Much of the analytical work of the book is open to similar exceptions, requiring from the reader almost the author's own skill in sailing safely past the snags with which the narrow channel is filled; but in general, Mr. Ridgway being best in the least details, his ultimate diagnoses of species and conspecies or subspecies leave little to be desired. Here his work is exhaustive, and will, as it should, be accepted as authoritative among the experts to whose use it is almost necessarily restricted.

The classification and nomenclature adopted are uniformly those of the "Code" recently prepared by a committee of the American Ornithologists' Union, of which Mr. Ridgway was a member. This is much the best scheme we have, and its general acceptance by ornithologists has gone far to bring about uniformity and precision in nomenclature. We could wish, however, that Dr. Coues's committee had not in their wisdom carried their thirst for "uniformity" to the extent of Canon XL, which provides that "the original orthography of a name is to be rigidly preserved, unless a typographical error is evident." That is to say, the printer must not misspell words, under pain of correction; but the author may do so, under pain (to us) of having his orthographical misdemeanors "rigidly preserved." This is little short of fetishism. So Mr. Ridgway bows to the *Cerorhinca* of Prince

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Bonaparte, which by no stretch of a spelling-bee could be got beyond *Cerorhyncha*, as a possible form of what ought to be *Ceratorhynchus*. So, again, the first suborder of Mr. Ridgway's book is *Podicipedes*, which is correct, the first family of that order being *Podicipidæ*, for which read *Podicipedidæ*, if there be any virtue in a way of compounding *podex* + *pes*, and adding the family suffix = *idæ*. On a wrong theory, that the basis of this word is *Podiceps*, the derivative family name would be *Podicipitidæ*. Now Mr. Ridgway uses *podiceps*, which is unquestionably a spurious form of *podicipes*; then he incorrectly inflects his family *Podicipidæ* from the incorrect form *podiceps;* and then correctly inflects his suborder *Podicipedes* from the correct form *podicipes*, which he does not use.

The work describes 768 full species and many additional subspecies, referred to nearly (as we estimate without counting) half as many genera or subgenera. The analyses include in many cases related extralimital forms from any part of the world, though chiefly neotropical. Four new subgenera and thirty-nine new subspecies are characterized. Eight genera or subgenera and thirty-one species or subspecies are additional to those admitted by the American Ornithologists' Union 'Check-list.' The book is fully indexed, as to both technical and vernacular names, in a manner identical with that adopted in the later editions of Coues's 'Key.' The frontispiece is a portrait of the late Prof. Baird, to whom the work is appropriately dedicated.

Life of Oliver Goldsmith. By Austin Dobson. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribner & Welford.

"THERE will come a day," wrote Goldsmith to his friend Bryanton (in a letter quoted on p. 54), "no doubt it will—I beg you may live a couple of hundred years longer only to see the day—when Scaligers and Daciers will vindicate my character, give learned editions of my labors, and bless the times with copious comments on the text." It is not yet a couple of hundred years since this letter was written, it is barely a century and a third, and yet what Goldsmith humorously predicted has actually come to pass. And, of a truth, he has been ever more fortunate than he dared to hope; his character, not needing strict vindication, has been most sympathetically portrayed by more than one master of the art of biography. Instead of Scaligers and Daciers, he has been edited by the more gentle hand of Mr. Austin Dobson. For the "Ideal Series," Mr. Dobson prepared the 'Vicar of Wakefield' with an introduction as elegant as the notes were learned and abundant; to a facsimile of the first edition of the same classic he contributed a preface full of new facts as to its original publication; Mr. Abbey's beautiful edition of 'She Stoops to Conquer' was adorned by one of Mr. Dobson's most felicitous poems; and almost the latest issue of the Clarendon Press Series is a volume of Goldsmith's 'Selected Poems,' edited with introduction and notes by Mr. Dobson. By all these preliminary labors the present biography has profited. To the writing of Goldsmith's life for the "Great Writers" series Mr. Dobson has brought a minute and exact knowledge of all the facts in the poet's career, resulting from a long and loving study of Goldsmith in particular, and of the whole eighteenth century at large. These are qualifications conspicuously lacking in Mr. William Black, who "did Goldsmith" for the "English Men of Letters" series, and who turned out a very perfunctory book, to which perhaps no volume in that generally admirable series is inferior, except Mrs. Oliphant's unspeakable "Sheridan." This is, indeed, Mr. Dobson's fifth contribution to the biography of the eighteenth century, and it seems to us to be easier in composition and richer in matter than either the Hogarth or the Bewick, the Steele or the Fielding.

In an appendix are given three hitherto unpublished letters of Goldsmith's from the collection of Mr. Frederick Locker-Sampson; and there is the usual elaborate and ample bibliography, by Mr. John P. Anderson of the British Museum, which lends a special value to all the books of the "Great Writers" series.

Essays. By the late Clement Mansfield Ingleby, M.A., LL.D., etc. Edited by his son. London: Trübner & Co. 1888.

THESE papers, upon literary or metaphysical topics, show a strong individuality in the author, and, if his mind is not to be called original, it was one which reacted with great vitality on what he read. Criticism is too often merely parasitical, but in this volume there is no room for such reproach. The most important article is one upon Bacon, in which the question is raised whether his "method" was really of such scientific value as has been ascribed to it, and the discussion favors the negative view. Other papers, upon Coleridge, Wordsworth, and De Quincey, are admirable for their temperate appreciation, and noticeable for their pervasive good sense. A metaphysical and scientific inquiry as to the perception of the rainbow is a most interesting example of such reasoning, and it is conducted through two articles, one in the form of the dialogue and one expository. But to us the most valuable paper is that entitled Law and Religion, in which there is a broad grasp of the historical evolution of man's moral consciousness, and, besides, occasion is found for many suggestions of a far-reaching and wise kind in respect to religion as primarily a regenerating power. The volume is somewhat hard reading, the fruits of a well-stored and highly trained mind, much given to difficult problems, and with an unrelaxing logical hold on the facts of the discussion. This makes it very notable among volumes of essays in which such vigor is seldom found and such attention from the reader is not usually required. The matter, however, is too various, and the lines of thought are too briefly followed, to allow one to discuss the author's work in a general way, and we must content ourselves with recommending it as a solid book for readers who do not grudge giving the assistance of their own thinking to the writer whom they read. We will not close, however, without mention of the humane plea for kindness to animals, and protest against the cruelty of English sport, with which the book ends.

Doctor and Patient. By S. Weir Mitchell. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

To be ill is one of the ordinary experiences of life. Loved and lover are scarcely more common factors in the social problem than the sick and those who would heal them. The professional literature of medicine is vast, but in it the sick are treated impersonally, and little speech is made of or to the physicians themselves, except in the general sense of agents for the administration of remedies. Generally speaking, the materia medica has precedence over the administrator, and the disease rather than the diseased is discussed. Still, wise physicians treat patients rather than diseases, which indeed has been set down as distinctive between English and French medicine.

It has been reserved for Dr. Mitchell, in his fulness of experience and with his exquisite literary taste, to present under the title of 'Doctor and Patient' (literally teacher and sufferer, and thus wisely chosen), a group of essays for popular and profitable reading upon this general theme. As the real patient is a sufferer, always in body and generally in mind, so is the true doctor a teacher, who by application and precept lifts him upon a higher plane. Dr. Mitchell examines and reports upon the physician from a physician's point of view, drawing a philosophic but delightful sketch of the higher type; and looks upon the invalid binocularly, as a convalescent and as a doctor, and thus throws him into stereoscopic relief. Various historical notes in relation to both men and things add interest and value. But he does not say, as he might have done, that, in the progress of science, his versatile father about fifty years ago made, or tried to make, observations on temperature in disease, experiments in medical thermometry, but was foiled by the want of sufficiently delicate instruments.

Much of what the book contains relates to the weaker and dearer portion of the race. He says, "I take women as they are to my experience," and "she is physiologically other than the man"; but he does not discuss the cause thereof. The lessons that this wise doctor, this most excellent teacher, delivers from these premises, every woman, and every man interested in a woman, may read with pleasure and ponder with profit. We quote nothing, chiefly because the mosaic of ideas is so cunningly inlaid that no one fragment will give any reasonable conception of the whole. Wisdom and humor are inwrought side by side, and Dr. Mitchell nowhere purposely tells the whole story, for, as he himself says, "the best readers are in a measure coöperative authors, and may be left to interpolate the unsaid." We hope that to be such colaborers will be the pleasure of many.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alford, Rev. H. The Queen's English. 6th ed. Scribner & Welford.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Master of His Fate: A Story. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Calogeras, N. Euthymii Zigabeni Commentarius in xiv Epistolas Sancti Pauli et vii Catholicas. 2 vols. Athens: Perri Brotners.
Clayden, P. W. Early Life of Samuel Rogers. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.75.
Crane, Rev. O. Virgil's Æneid, translated literally. Baker & Taylor Co.
Don't. Boudoir ed. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Edwards, H. S. The Prima-Donna: Her History and Surroundings, from the 17th to the 19th Century. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Ernst II. Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Band I. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Fiske, H. G. The N. Y. *Mirror* Annual and Directory of the Theatrical Profession. N. Y. *Mirror* Office. $1.10.
Forster, J. Ellen. The Crime against Ireland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. William the Conqueror. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Ingraham, J. P. T. Why We Believe the Bible. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
King, W. F. H. Classical and Foreign Quotations. Thomas Whittaker. $1.75.
Kneeland, Dr. S. Volcanoes and Earthquakes. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. What is the Bible? Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Larisun, Dr. C. W. Solomon'z Song. Ringos, N. J.: Fonic Publishing Hous.
Leland, C. G. Practical Education. London: Whittaker & Co.
Lear, H. L. S. Henri Dominique Lacordaire. New ed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.25.
Levi, Prof. L. International Law. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Lintilhac, E. Beaumarchais et ses œuvres. 8vo. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lloyd, A. P. Law of Building and Buildings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Mann, Rev. C. Five Discourses on Future Punishment. T. Whittaker. 75 cents.
McNally, D. R., jr. Irish Wonders: The Ghosts, Giants, &c., of the Emerald Isle. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2
Merriman, Helen B. What Shall Make Us Whole? Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 75 cents.
Palmer, A. J. Divorce Abolished. Minneapolis.
Palmer, E. Chirography, or, the Art of Telling One's Character by Handwriting. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Pat erson, Capt. H. The Yachtsman's Guide. New ed. New York Navigation School. $5
People's Year-Book and Traveller's Companion. Brentano's. 25 cents
The Forum. Vol. IV. Forum Publishing Co.

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